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PROFESSIONAL EDUCATION FOR LIBRARIANSHIP¹

JOHN DALE RUSSELL

LIBRARIANSHIP, to one outside the profession, seems not to be a single uniform field of activity. Perhaps this conclusion is a commonplace to those who are members of the profession, but the outsider who observes what librarians do cannot fail to be impressed by the fact that some of them perform functions that are quite different from the functions performed by others. Although the field of librarianship embraces many specialties, large numbers of the members of the profession are generalists and carry on in a more or less expert manner nearly the full round of particular operations that are sometimes assigned to specialists.

Librarians do their work in connection with several different kinds of organizations. Four more or less distinct areas where

¹ An address delivered before a joint meeting of the Association of American Library Schools and the Professional Training Section of the American Library Association, at Milwaukee, Wisconsin, June 25, 1942.

The writer acknowledges his indebtedness for many of the ideas in this paper to two members of the library profession, Mr. K. D. Metcalf and Mr. Andrew D. Osborn, of the Library of Harvard University, with whom he has recently been collaborating on a survey of a library school. In this association many ideas about professional preparation for librarianship have been suggested and considered and it becomes impossible to distinguish the original source of each idea. While acknowledging his indebtedness to Mr. Metcalf and Mr. Osborn, the writer takes full responsibility personally for everything in this paper. The gentlemen named have not been consulted directly about it and they might disagree with some or many of its conclusions.

library service is demanded are well recognized: (1) the college or university library; (2) the elementary-school or secondary-school library; (3) the public library, usually controlled by a city or a county, but including also the state library, and, greatest of all, the national library which we know in this country as the Library of Congress; (4) special libraries in fields so diverse as almost to defy classification—libraries connected with research or promotional departments of industrial concerns, law libraries, medical libraries, privately controlled libraries, and others of widely varied types.

Before one can speak intelligently of education for the profession of librarianship there must be a definition of the term and a decision as to whether the reference is to some limited aspect of the profession or to librarians of all kinds serving in all kinds of organizational connections and performing all the special types of library service.

Within the scope of this paper it is not possible to discuss the education needed for each of the various types of professional service rendered by the librarian. In any event such a problem would be a matter for experts within the profession itself rather than for an outsider to discuss. I shall therefore confine my remarks to the education of the generalist in the field of library service. Perhaps the chief librarian of a medium-sized city library or the head of a college library would serve as the type of generalist to be kept in mind as a kind of norm in this discussion of education for librarianship.

The decision as to the type of education needed for any kind of professional service, such as librarianship, hinges on the answers to two questions: (1) What does the librarian have to do or have to be? (2) What educational experiences should the prospective librarian undergo in order to develop the characteristics and the abilities that are required for effective service in his profession? This discussion is organized around these two questions. I shall first point out some five characteristics of the effective librarian and then I shall indicate for each of these characteristics some educational experiences that would be appropriate to develop the required abilities.

To one outside the library profession, who has had the opportunity to observe the work of a good many librarians in various types of positions, the librarian seems to serve in five important capacities: (1) as a citizen with broadly developed interests, capable of some leadership in the community where he lives and serves; (2) as a scholar in a more or less compact group of scholars; (3) as administrator of a complicated organization, the library itself; (4) as a personnel worker, who has extensive dealings with people of many kinds; and (5) as a technician, who must know the intricacies of selecting books, arranging them for the most ready use, and assisting those who need to use them. These characteristics of the librarian have been deliberately placed in the order I have given. The emphasis in the professional preparation of librarians has been placed, I believe, almost exclusively on the last of these five functions. In my judgment it is time to give much more attention than has previously been done to the first four of these areas in which the librarian should have competence. I shall discuss in turn the educational experiences which would be appropriate to the development of the required abilities for each of these five functions of the librarian, and in the discussion of each function I shall first give some attention to its justification as a part of the librarian's responsibilities.

THE LIBRARIAN AS A CITIZEN

The librarian is first of all a person, and as a person he is a citizen of some community. To be effective as a librarian he must be something more than an ordinary citizen; he must be one who can exert some leadership. He will normally be one of the better-educated persons in his community, and communities have the right to expect that those who have enjoyed the advantages of extensive education shall provide a certain amount of social leadership. The librarian's leadership should be based on knowledge; he should fill out the circle of the various types of leadership common to the American community—those based on social position, economic resources, ecclesiastical prestige, or political connections.

Education for community leadership might perhaps be considered not a part of the professional education of the librarian but rather a part of his general education. A librarian has such an imperative need, however, for a good general education that general education in reality becomes a part of his professional equipment. This is not evident in all types of library positions, but it is outstanding in the service of the public library. Those who are familiar with the field of library service will undoubtedly recall many examples in the library profession of persons who have become recognized leaders in their local communities.

What kind of education will develop the capabilities of the prospective librarian for community leadership? So far as direct instruction is concerned, the social sciences seem to be most appropriate for this purpose. Such subjects as sociology, political science, psychology, and social psychology are the means whereby the person preparing for librarianship may be introduced to the necessary background of information that will enable him to become an intelligent leader.

Preparation for community leadership, however, is not merely a question of subject matter. The direct instruction needs to be supplemented by extensive opportunities for experience. The young person who is at all interested in this type of activity will find abundant opportunity, both formal and informal, to develop these interests. Some of the areas of activity which offer opportunity to develop one's capabilities along this line are: (1) church work, such as Sunday-school teaching, vacation-bible-school teaching, young people's organizations, and similar services; (2) political activity in connection with party organizations, participation in political campaigns, carrying of petitions, and many other types of political activity; (3) social service work, or work for private charitable or relief organizations; (4) assistance in informal educational organizations or in community uplift organizations, such as neighborhood clubs, Y.M.C.A., Y.W.C.A., settlement houses, Boy Scouts and Girl Scouts, etc.; (5) assistance with local defense organizations—a new situation growing out of wartime condi-

tions, which offers young people unusual opportunities for participation in community leadership activities in many types of service in block defense organizations.

The activities that have been listed here lie outside the peculiar field covered by the program of the library school. Activities may also be organized within the library school itself, or within the institution with which the library school is connected, to provide students opportunities to develop their abilities for community leadership. It is the responsibility of the library school to see that its students have had or are getting this necessary type of developmental experience. While participation in community leadership need not be a necessary requirement for admission to the training program of the library school, the school should at least call the attention of its entering students to the desirability of this type of experience, and it should make every effort to supply the necessary opportunities for those who have not previously developed their capabilities along this line.

Summarizing this point: the fact that the librarian must be a leading citizen in his community implies that he should have had instruction in the fields of the social sciences and a type of developmental experience that will give him the "feel" of the community—that will enable him to work with people and be respected by them as a person and as a leader entirely apart from the actual service rendered through the library. He ought to be in contact with the general problems of society and be able to meet people and discuss these problems intelligently and objectively. One who has no interest in this type of activity or shows no promise in developing this kind of ability should be discouraged from entering the library profession, except as he may anticipate limiting his services to some narrow technical field where he may be employed as a specialist in a relatively large library organization.

THE LIBRARIAN AS A SCHOLAR AMONG SCHOLARS

Within the broader field of the entire community where he serves, the librarian is in rather close contact with a smaller

group which may be termed the community of scholars. In the college or university the community of scholars consists of the administrative staff, the faculty, and the students. For the elementary-school or secondary-school library the community of scholars consists of the executive-staff members and the teachers of the school. In the case of the public library the community of scholars with which the librarian has contact is less compact than in the case of the school or college library; it consists of the more intellectual persons in the locality—the school people, the ministers, possibly some members of other professional groups, and leaders in women's clubs and similar organizations.

In order to maintain effectively his position in this community of scholars with which he has close contact, the librarian must himself qualify as a scholar. He must be broadly acquainted with the manifold fields of human knowledge. He must be able to speak the language of scholars. He must know the ways in which scholars and specialists in various fields derive their knowledge and apply it to practical situations. Under modern conditions one can scarcely qualify as a scholar unless, in addition to the general types of knowledge already indicated, one has penetrated fairly deeply into one or more specialized fields. This last characteristic, however, is sometimes unfortunately overemphasized, I believe, almost to the exclusion of the grasp of the broader types of knowledge which in former generations was the predominant characteristic of the scholar.

What kind of education will provide the librarian with the background of scholarship that is required if he is to take his place as a scholar in a community of scholars? First of all, he must have a good general education, which should have touched all the fields of human knowledge. For the most part the opportunity to obtain this type of education is confined to the secondary-school and the junior-college period.

Unfortunately, the construction of the high-school and the junior-college curriculum by subject-matter specialists has made it very difficult during the past fifty or sixty years for students to get this contact with all the fields of human knowledge.

The typical collegiate curriculum through which most of us have passed allowed us an introduction to only a relatively few fields, and the introduction to each was given as though each of us intended to become a specialist in it. The movement in the direction of providing survey courses, which cover broadly certain wide areas of human knowledge and give a type of education needed by the generalist, not by the specialist in that field, offers a most hopeful promise of solving this difficulty.

I may, perhaps, be pardoned for referring to the University of Chicago program for survey courses at the level of the junior college, as a development that seems to me to solve this problem of providing a foundation for sound general education. I can speak of the "College" program, as it is called at the University of Chicago, without bias, for I am not a member of that part of the university organization. I do have, however, in my advanced classes young people who have come through that program. I have an unusual opportunity to compare them in the same classes with transfer students from other institutions who have come through the more traditional type of program. My observations from that experience lead me to be enthusiastic about the type of general education given in the College of the University of Chicago.

In addition to a broad general education, in which the student will have been introduced to the major areas of human knowledge, the scholar-librarian should have delved somewhat more deeply into a number of fields which may be of interest to him. For these somewhat more intensive areas of study he should select those that are of interest not only to him but also to relatively large numbers of other scholars; it is advisable for him to avoid a specialized interest in a rare field which is the province of only limited numbers of modern scholars. The amount of concentration in these areas of interest by the scholar-librarian need not be great. Distribution among a few fields is perhaps more important than a high degree of concentration in a single subject. Perhaps four or five minors would be better than one major for the Bachelor's degree in the preparation of the scholar-librarian.

Training for effective service as a librarian has, in my judgment, been handicapped by the traditional requirements for the A.B. degree. Professional training for librarianship has for the most part been worked out on the basis of the completion of the Bachelor's degree, or within the framework of that degree. Those who have arranged the curriculum for librarianship have been more or less compelled to accept the traditional pattern of the Bachelor's degree requirements. These requirements have no rational or significant meaning today. They are a compromise between an attempt at general education and an attempt at specialized training, and they accomplish neither result adequately.

The new plan of the University of Chicago, whereby the Bachelor's degree is given at the end of the sophomore year after a thorough and comprehensive program involving four years of general education, will allow the development of a three-year or four-year program of training for librarianship which can then include the elements of specialization outside the field of library science that are needed by the librarian, without regard to the traditional requirements for the Bachelor's degree. It should be possible under this plan to develop a sound educational program which will care adequately for the scholarly development of the prospective librarian.

In addition to an acquaintance with all the fields of human knowledge and a somewhat more specialized knowledge of several fields of general interest, the scholar-librarian needs a knowledge of research methods in one or more broad areas. At present the only way one can get this type of development is in a program for the Master's degree or the Ph.D. degree, and the plan for training in research nearly always consists of narrow specialization rather than instruction in a broad field. It should be readily possible, however, to set up a program of instruction and experience in research sufficient to give students an acquaintance with research methods without the long drag through the preparation of the Master's or Doctor's thesis. Much of the time in a Master's or Doctor's program is spent in finding and defining a problem. The student is expected to dis-

cover for himself the methods of attacking and solving the problem. This is excellent training for the future research worker; but perhaps the prospective librarian, who only needs to know about research and to get the idea of how research workers go about their business in a number of fields of human knowledge, could be given direct instruction along those lines without actually participating extensively in research itself. This, it seems to me, is what the librarian needs to have, rather than the actual experience of having done a real piece of extensive research in an academic subject. It should be possible to set up problems that require the research attack and to give direct instruction as to how the research attack can be made on those problems, and thus to shorten greatly the length of time required in order to become acquainted with research methods in a given field.

If the community with which the librarian is to work is one with strong emphasis on scholarship, as is the case with the college or university librarian, then he should develop his knowledge in some subject to the point where he can be recognized as a scholar in his own right. He needs to be able to hold up his head as a scholar among his peers on the faculty. A Master's degree in some content field is the minimum, and a Ph.D. degree is to be hoped for as the desirable academic preparation of the librarian who will work closely with a company of scholars in a college or university organization.

THE LIBRARIAN AS AN ADMINISTRATOR

In every library there must be at least one person who is an administrator. The organization of the library, if it is of any size at all, can be very complex, and it requires the service of a specialist to administer it and keep it working smoothly. In a large library organization there will be many specialists among the workers who will not have administrative or executive duties. Even these persons, however, should understand the place and function of the administration in the library organization in order that they may carry on their own duties intelligently and co-operatively.

The administrator is a person who usually has three somewhat different types of responsibilities. In the first place, he must obtain the resources necessary for the enterprise—the financial support, the staff members, and the materials that are used. In the second place, he must dispose of the available resources, materials, and staff in such a way as to accomplish most effectively the purposes of the enterprise. In the third place, he must keep the subordinate members of the staff happy at their jobs and alert to render effective service.

Until recently it has been assumed that administrators are born, not made. The plan of preparing administrators for almost every kind of organization has been to give some likely and willing person on the staff a chance to do administrative work on a small scale; if he proved successful and seemed to learn from his experience, he would then be given larger responsibilities; and promotions would be continued as long as opportunity was offered in the organization or until the individual reached the apparent limits of his capability. In more recent times there has been a marked movement to insist that administrators should have some specific preparation for that type of work. This movement was evident perhaps first and most strongly in the field of the public school; extensive programs have been arranged for the training of school administrators and in many states no one is permitted to engage in public-school administration who has not completed a recognized training program. Lately the desirability of training for executive responsibility has been recognized in the field of government and industrial management.

The nature of the education that is desirable as preparation for administrative work is becoming well recognized. First of all, there must be a selection of individuals in terms of certain personal characteristics which seem essential to success. These would be of special importance for librarians who expect to be the head of a library or who will work in any position in which they have executive responsibility. In general, the extrovert type of personality is more likely to be successful in administration than the introvert type. There is as yet no definite evi-

dence as to whether the personality factor is purely a matter of native ability or one that can be developed by education. I lean to the opinion that the desirable personal characteristics for administrative work can be developed in almost any person through appropriate educational experiences. By the time a person has reached the stage of professional preparation for librarianship, however, his personal characteristics are likely to be so firmly fixed that education for the purpose of changing those characteristics will probably be unpalatable, time-consuming, and uneconomical. In the practical situation, therefore, the library school should make some selection, in terms of personal characteristics, of those who are permitted to enter preparation for any type of library work involving administrative responsibilities.

After the initial selection of the individual on the basis of suitable personal characteristics, the first educational requirement for preparation for administrative work is an acquaintance with certain general principles of administration that are applicable to all fields of executive responsibility. These principles are in the process of being worked out and formulated, and it is possible to get instruction along such lines in the graduate schools of some universities.

The second type of knowledge needed by the administrator of the library is the knowledge of all the ramifications of the organization he is to administer, in both its external and its internal relationships. This involves, for the college or university librarian, a general knowledge of the problems of the organization and administration of institutions of higher education. It involves, for the librarian of the elementary or secondary school, a knowledge of the problems of the public-school administration. It involves, for the librarian of the public library, a knowledge of municipal administration.

Beyond these general areas of information, which deal with the general principles of administration and the administrative organization of the major social enterprise of which the library is a part, the librarian needs to have specific instruction in the techniques applicable to the administrative service within the

library itself. This subject is a well-recognized one in the curriculum for the professional education of the librarian. As the course is at present organized, according to the opinion of some whose judgment I respect, it is, perhaps, too much the dumping ground for the odds and ends of information that do not fit into other parts of the professional training curriculum. It should be possible to organize this field of subject matter so that it may deal with a coherent group of techniques necessary to the practical operation of the library.

In addition to the informational courses which have been outlined as a part of the preparation of the librarian along administrative lines, some experience in actual administrative work is highly desirable. This is extremely difficult to arrange for immature students. Internship or apprenticeship is perhaps the best solution, but this frequently does not give the young person an opportunity to get an actual sense of administrative responsibility. Perhaps educators have not been as ingenious as they might have been in devising educational situations offering opportunity for administrative experience. Extra-curriculum activities may give this opportunity better than formally organized courses. Perhaps laboratory problems could be set up which would give the required experience in administrative work.

THE LIBRARIAN AS A PERSONNEL WORKER

An important part of the librarian's responsibility is to deal with people, and he needs to be prepared for this type of relationship. Among the types of people with whom the librarian makes contact are the staff members within the library itself, the users of the library—who may be of all kinds and all ages—and the persons who determine the general policies of the library, such as board members, politicians, administrative officers, and teachers in institutions of higher education or in the elementary and secondary schools.

In the larger libraries there are some positions which do not require one to deal with people or in which only limited contacts are maintained with other specialized workers within the library

organization itself. Students entering preparation for the library profession should thoroughly understand these circumstances. Those who by nature tend to avoid situations that require them to deal with people should be informed about the limits of the services that are open to them. Only those who give evidence of ability to work with people and of a satisfaction in that kind of service should be allowed to prepare for general library work. As in the case of administrative ability, the emphasis is on the extrovert type of personality. In a speech which I made in 1934 before the college librarians of the Middle West, in connection with the mid-winter conference of the American Library Association, I dwelt at length on the tendency of the library profession to attract too many persons of the introvert type of personality.

For one who has the natural characteristics that make him happy and contented in situations where he deals with people there are certain educational experiences that will improve the quality of his contacts with others. It is important that one who has responsibilities for dealing with other people have sufficient general and technical training to command their respect. Effective personnel relationships are greatly facilitated when there is an initial respect for the educational qualifications of the one who must maintain the relationship. In addition, the library worker needs to have a knowledge of practical psychology—a knowledge of the way people's minds work and of the mainsprings of human action. Such a knowledge may be obtained from courses in social psychology, educational psychology, the psychology of emotions, child psychology, and other courses in the broad field of psychology as applied to specialized fields, such as advertising, salesmanship, and industrial relations. The prospective librarian does not need to have had courses in all of these fields, but two or three such courses will give him valuable suggestions for improving his relations with other people.

Development of the person's ability to work with others is, perhaps, as much a matter of experience as it is of actual informational education. Students have abundant opportunity for

this type of experience in their relationships with other students through extra-curriculum activities, through living arrangements, and in many informal ways. Perhaps most students entering training for library work have already had some preliminary experience as circulation assistants in a library. In such positions they have had the opportunity to develop techniques of working with other people. Like most types of experience, however, these informal methods of developing one's abilities need to be closely supervised by some mature worker if mistakes are to be avoided and undesirable characteristics eliminated. It is entirely possible, for example, that a circulation assistant in the library may become fixed in bad habits of dealing with other people if that experience is not effectively supervised.

THE LIBRARIAN AS A TECHNICIAN

Finally, the librarian must serve as a technician, familiar with the routines involved in the organization and management of a library. My inclination is to give this part of the subject less attention than some of the parts of the librarian's training I have already discussed. In my judgment this phase of the preparation of the librarian is being dealt with rather effectively at present. In fact, I think it is being overemphasized, and I would be willing to see a little less time given in the preservice training program to the actual techniques of library work, in order to get into the program more of the types of education I have been describing under previous headings. I am inclined to think that many of the matters that are carefully taught as a part of the technical training of the librarian could be learned more effectively on the job, and that considerable time is being spent in elaborating the obvious or in refining techniques beyond the point of any practical value.

To an outsider there seem to be three broad technical areas in which special competence for library service is required: (1) the selecting and obtaining of books; (2) the arrangement of books for most ready use; and (3) assisting those who need to use the books.

In the first of these three functions, that of selecting and obtaining books, the degree of training necessary for a librarian will depend upon the competence of the staff members available in other parts of the organization with which the library is connected. In a college or university the selection of library books will be chiefly a function of the faculty members. The librarian cannot possibly be expert in all the subject-matter fields, no matter how much training he may have had in book selection, and his judgment as to what should be bought in any scholarly field will not be as wise as the judgment of the competent scholars on the faculty who are specialists in it. If the faculty does not have competent scholars in the various fields of knowledge, then nothing that the librarian can do will ever make a real institution of higher education out of it. The purchasing office of the college or university may have as much information about sources and prices as the librarian, so that order work may become merely a clerical routine bridging the gap between selection and cataloging.

In the public library the situation is considerably different from that of the college or university. There are usually no subject-matter experts available to assist in the selection of books, and the librarian should be equipped with techniques for determining what books are desirable for purchase. Although some technical knowledge is necessary, a sound general education is certainly the fundamental requisite for the effective selection of library books. As in the college or university library, however, the purchases may frequently be handled through the municipal purchasing office, and the order work of the library in such cases becomes merely a clerical routine.

In the library of the elementary or secondary school the librarian will have somewhat more opportunity for consultation with competent persons on the teaching or administrative staffs than the librarian has in the public library. But the degree of competence available in the public-school teaching and administrative staff is not as great as that in the college or university faculty, and the librarian in the elementary or secondary school will need to exercise considerable independent judgment about

book selection. Purchasing may be done through the regular business office of the school system.

The techniques of arranging books for use—or, in professional terminology, cataloging and classification—are, in my judgment, overemphasized as techniques, especially in the case of the college or university library. The whole business of classification is based on the theory that human knowledge can be definitely arranged into distinct categories, and that publications can be assigned specifically to these categories. As a matter of fact, scholars are always rearranging knowledge into new classifications. For any course of instruction beyond the level of general education, the reading list will most likely draw books from many different subdivisions of the major categories. Most books belong to many different classifications, and an extensive array of cross-references is needed in any effective catalog.

The theory that the scholarly specialist will find all the references on his subject under one class number is a myth. No true scholar tries to locate the books in which he is interested by scanning the shelves of the library; he works from bibliographies and similar tools of classification which are much more flexible than the class number and the specific shelf arrangement. If the scholar does not use the finely divided classifications into which books are cataloged, of what use is the whole process?

In my judgment the whole business of classification could be practically eliminated in a small library by having no subject-matter divisions and shelving all books alphabetically according to author. In a large library it might be desirable for administrative purposes to have some major divisions on the basis of subject matter; possibly in a very large library this might run up to thirty or forty different categories. Within each of these categories the books could be shelved alphabetically by author with no disadvantage to the readers. The card catalog would, of course, give reference to the book under the appropriate subject headings. Such a step might eliminate some of the time now given to the training of classifiers. Classification

would be a problem for the expert scholars in the respective subject-matter fields, and it could readily be done from one central source to serve all the libraries in the country.

The third major area of library service, assisting those who use books, is partly a clerical task (circulation), partly a task in the field of personnel management, as previously suggested, and partly a task demanding qualifications of high scholarship (reference work). The latter demands extensive preparation, but I doubt if much of the needed preparation can be obtained in a professional curriculum in library school. It belongs, rather, to that part of general education described earlier in this paper. The student who waits until he comes to the professional part of his training in library school to learn about the various reference books and guides to scholarly literature simply has not had a sound general education. I doubt if he will ever learn effectively to find the answer to questions of readers through a library-school course in reference if he has never had extensive experience in running down answers to questions that have been real to him in his own previous academic experience. The principal function of training in reference work might well be to systematize and organize the student's previous experience in searching for answers to questions and to show him how he can continually improve his acquaintance with sources of information on topics in the whole range of human knowledge.

The reader should be reminded that the remarks concerning the techniques of librarianship have here been developed from the point of view of one outside the profession, from the point of view of a consumer of library services rather than that of one who is trained in library science. Although the ideas are stated dogmatically, the intention is not to imply that the complete professional curriculum is condemned or that teachers in library schools should stop teaching the techniques which have been questioned. The intention is, rather, to stimulate thinking about these matters, so that practicing librarians and teachers in library schools may themselves ask the question: How

necessary is each of these items of technique in which we now instruct young people who expect to become librarians?

SUMMARY

In this paper I have attempted, as an outsider, to outline a few ideas, some of them possibly iconoclastic, on training for librarianship. I have not tried to put these ideas together as recommendations for a finished curriculum. That is the task for the specialist in the field of library science. Neither have I attempted to indicate how much time the program of preparation should require from the student. If pressed for an approximation on this point I would be inclined to suggest that five years beyond the completion of the present high school is the minimum, and perhaps six years should be suggested as the desirable minimum, for anyone who is to have the chief responsibility for the administration of even a small library.

Even if the suggestions that I have put forth do not appear to be sound, I should like to defend the methods by which I have attempted to reach my conclusions as to the nature of the professional education for librarianship. That method, you will recall, involves two steps: first, a determination of what the librarian must be and must do; and, second, the discovery of the educational experiences and the personal characteristics that will be most effective in helping the prospective librarian to become and to do what he should. I have suggested five areas in which the librarian needs to have competence that can be developed in part through a program of preparation: first, as a citizen exerting some leadership in his community; second, as a scholar respected in a community of scholars; third, as an administrator of a complicated organization; fourth, as a personnel worker who must sustain relationships with many types of people; and, fifth, as a technician competent to carry on the technical processes essential to the successful operation of the library itself. For each of these areas of competence certain types of training and experience have been suggested. The last mentioned of these five areas is now rather well developed; it is time in my judgment to turn more attention to the first four.

The program of training for librarianship has, in my judgment, been handicapped by the necessity of its being based upon and conforming to the general pattern of the traditional Bachelor's degree. In order to develop a new pattern, functionally designed to serve the needs of those who intend to become librarians, it would be desirable to discard the old mold into which the A.B. degree has long been cast. The new pattern might well include a rationally arranged program which would give the Bachelor of Arts degree at the end of general education, possibly attained by the end of the present Sophomore year in college. The minimum essentials of specialized training for librarianship could then be arranged as a three- or four-year program beyond the completion of general education; it could include not only the technical content in the field of library science but various academic subjects which are a desirable part of the librarian's scholarly equipment.

BETWEEN TWO WARS IN THE BRITISH MUSEUM LIBRARY¹

ARUNDELL J. K. ESDAILE

THAT *inter arma vacante . . . bibliothecae* is not entirely true. But even 1914-18, when there was but little bombing of London, were four years of partial suspense for the British Museum Library. Manuscripts and rare printed books were not, indeed, moved to Worcestershire and Wales till near the end; a determined attempt by the Air Ministry to occupy the building was defeated by public protests; and the Treasury was persuaded that the modern purchases and subscriptions to periodicals for the Printed Books must be kept up. But all purchases of older books and of manuscripts, except from the Egerton endowed funds, were stopped; and the library rooms of the King Edward Building, which had been opened in the summer of 1914, were waiting for their final disposition and fitting. Two or three important volumes of catalogs saw the light. The staff was, of course, depleted—although so also were readers and, to some extent, books. Those who fell are commemorated by an inscription, carved by Eric Gill, on the wall by the entrance; it includes the four often-quoted lines, "They shall not grow old," by Laurence Binyon, himself a member of the staff.

The twenty-one years of peace which followed were troubled for the Museum by congestion and recurring difficulty in obtaining funds. Yet much was accomplished in that time.

A beginning was made by installing map and music rooms as well as the Copyright Receipt Office in the King Edward Building. But the basement of that building had to be used for the temporary storage of newspapers, since the repository which

¹ This article was intended for the special July, 1942, issue of the *Library quarterly* in honor of Dean Wilson but arrived too late for inclusion.

had been opened at Hendon in the northwest suburbs of London in 1906 was full by 1921, many years before the estimated date. And the old Iron Library shelves—i.e., Panizzi's stacks of 1857—were also full.

The Office of Works began with the latter and, as it was thought, easier and cheaper job. A fourth story was added in 1920 to one—the southeastern—of the four quadrants of the stacks. But in the process the structure below was found to be too light, so the other quadrants were left alone. Still worse, they insisted on the removal of 250 of the hanging presses,² holding 88,000 books, which had to be stacked for the time with the recent intake of newspapers.

The trustees, in despair, appealed to the government for leave to use more of the site. But similar appeals were arriving in Whitehall from other national museums and galleries of science and art. In 1927 a royal commission was appointed to investigate the state of all these institutions, and above all to find, if possible, some way of economizing on building without crippling them.

The report, which appeared in two parts—interim and final, with the evidence—in 1928–30, is a pleasant contrast to the two previous public inquiries into the conduct of the Museum. A backward and sleepy institution is no longer goaded, as in 1835–36, into recognition of modern needs. And no longer, as in 1847–49, is there a voluminous public washing of dirty domestic linen. The attitude of the commissioners was throughout friendly and helpful; and in the evidence will be found an admirable summary account of the Museum's history, government, and economy, by the director and principal librarian, Sir Frederic Kenyon,³ who, I may add, wrote it (with some small help from myself) while he was on vacation.

² These were inserted in the eighties of the last century and postponed the building crisis by a generation.

³ Sir Frederic Kenyon retired in 1930; he needs no introduction to my readers on either side of the Atlantic. He was succeeded by Sir George Hill and he, in 1936, by the present director, Sir John Forsdyke. It is, perhaps, just chance that these two are the first directors since the Museum's foundation not to have come from a library department.

The final report touched the Museum library on only one point. As recently as 1927 the Board of Education's Committee on Public Libraries, under Sir Frederic Kenyon as chairman, had dealt with the keystone of the whole arch—the Central Library for Students, as it was then still called, now the National Central Library, which exists to organize mutual lending between libraries, as the Berlin Leihverkehr had long done for those in Germany. The committee recommended that the library should be incorporated as a department of the Museum. The trustees, when this was put to them, foresaw difficulties. They had not enough knowledge of the public libraries, and the correlation of the two staffs would be a problem. The royal commission agreed with them, recommending as an alternative that the Central Library's constitution should include representation of the Museum in its governing body, and this was done. We have in these two libraries the two halves of a national library system: on the one hand a stationary reference library which does not lend; on the other an organization of all those which do.

In their interim report the commissioners found that the problem of outstanding urgency for the Museum was that of the library. It could not stand still but must be kept up to date. In agreement with the learned societies which had given evidence, they were against any diminution of the library's right to legal deposit, such as by transfer of books on special subjects to the appropriate special libraries—a plan which would destroy the library's universality. No selection would save more than a fifth of the bulk, or could fail to be costly and to involve irreparable mistakes. They indorsed a scheme prepared for the trustees by Sir Richard Allinson, the chief architect of the Office of Works. The Iron Library should be completely reconstructed, quadrant by quadrant, in modern stack-building style; meanwhile the two "supplementary" rooms of the Old Library should be filled with floors carrying stacks, and an annex should be built in the quadrangle to take the initial displacement. The newspaper repository should be enlarged to take all newspapers later than 1800, with some other classes. All this would cost

£283,500, occupy twelve to fifteen years, and provide for the intake of over half a century, beyond which period it is hard to expect library-builders to look.

Economic blizzards, wars, and rumors of wars have played havoc with this program, at least with its timetable. But the supplementary rooms were filled and two quadrants rebuilt and one fitted and filled. The newspaper repository at Hendon was enlarged and reopened in 1932 as the Newspaper Library at Colindale—complete with reading room, bindery, and photostat—and a state-paper reading room was opened in the King Edward Building (state papers used to be read in the newspaper room). The newspaper room, thus freed, was turned over to the Oriental Library for a new and better students' room, newspaper shelving space adjoining being divided between the manuscripts and the Oriental Library. Floors were inserted in the wastefully lofty rooms of the old North Wing, once the reading rooms. The North Library (the rare book reading room) gave up similar top space to the Egyptian department above it for storage and was remodeled and refitted in a rather ultra-modern style which has been compared to that of the latest transatlantic liners. Moreover, a small Bible exhibition room was later contrived off the manuscripts saloon.

Though someone I could name has prevented, among much else, the punctual completion of the scheme, I have no hesitation in naming the man to whom we owe its prompt inception. The late Lord Duveen, then Sir Joseph Duveen, immediately on the appearance of the interim report offered to build certain much-needed art galleries for the Museum, the National Gallery, and the National Portrait Gallery; he made the sole stipulation that the government should carry out the commission's recommendations on the scientific and library side. He fulfilled his part of the bargain; the government have done their best to carry out theirs.

The *General catalogue*, published between 1881 and 1905, rapidly went out of print and became rare, while the vast development of libraries on both sides of the Atlantic, but particularly in the United States, made competition, and very high prices

were paid for sets.⁴ Robert Farquharson Sharp, who succeeded Dr. Pollard as keeper in 1924,⁵ put to the trustees a scheme for a more or less mechanical incorporation of accessions and reprint of the whole, calculated to take a dozen years or so, and this was accepted. But when work began this plan was found so unworthy of the Museum that it was expanded to include thorough revision. The old catalog was full of errors, owing to speed in printing, for Garnett had sacrificed accuracy to punctuality in the appearance of the fascicles. A new grade of twenty assistant catalogers, of the same type as the assistant keepers, was therefore now recruited. The Rockefeller Foundation helped nobly, especially by providing for a discount to be given to the first hundred American libraries to subscribe. The first volume of the new catalog ("G.K. II," as it is affectionately called) appeared in 1931, and its volumes are familiar to librarians and scholars in America. It goes on, not much hindered by the war, though many of the staff are in the army, for it is an obligation. But it will take perhaps four times the original estimate of a dozen years, and it will be in many more volumes. Those who paid the whole subscription at once have, even calculating the interest, made a very good bargain.

An inevitable drawback to any great general catalog, whether printed on cards or in volumes, is that it cannot, to say the least, be carried in the pocket, nor can specialists readily pick out of it the classes that interest them. Panizzi had long ago conceived the idea of using duplicates of the general catalog slips for special catalogs. But this method was not used when it was decided to produce the series of special lists for countries and centuries, of which the first volumes, covering books to the end of the sixteenth century, are no doubt known to my readers. The titles were assembled and abridged, the published result being called "Short-title catalogues." So far Dr. Henry Thomas has compiled and published the Spanish in 1921, the French in 1924, and the Portuguese (originally published unofficially and

⁴ That catalog, unlike its successor, was printed to meet a domestic need—the need of shelf space in the reading room.

⁵ He retired in 1930 and was succeeded by the present keeper, Wilfred Marsden.

reissued by the trustees) in 1940. The old catalog of English books printed before 1640, issued in 1884, not only is now very incomplete but has many faults. However, the appearance of Pollard and Redgrave's *Short-title catalogue* in 1927 makes a new volume for the Museum, as it makes one for the Bodleian, unnecessary. A beginning was made by myself of one for the rest of the seventeenth century, but my removal to the secretaryship in 1926, and soon afterward the exigency of "G.K. II," put a stop to this. Meanwhile, the great catalog of the Museum's incunabula has proceeded, under the editorship and largely from the hand of Dr. Victor Scholderer—the three volumes (V–VII) covering Venice (an enormous volume this) and the rest of Italy, except Subiaco and Rome, having appeared in 1924–35. Dr. Scholderer has accompanied the incunabula into exile and has been able to continue the work. He is also responsible for a volume of facsimiles of Greek printing types (1927), based on an exhibition staged in the King's Library. The Lanston Monotype Corporation generously presented this handsome catalog, proceeds to go to purchases in this field. It may be worth noting that as a by-product of this work Dr. Scholderer designed a new Greek type, the "New Hellenic," adapted in the main from that of Rubens, and that it has been taken into use by the *London Times* and other publishers.

The King's Music Library, the private collection of the sovereigns from George III down, was deposited in 1911, but, as we have seen, was not properly arranged till after 1918. The late William Barclay Squire was appointed its keeper, and, after his death in 1927 (he retired from the Museum in 1924), successive keepers of Printed Books have held the office. The collection is notably rich in Handel, as might be expected, but by no means in Handel alone. Squire produced the first volume (1927) of the catalog, dealing with the Handel MSS, and the rest have been dealt with by Miss Hilda Andrews and Mr. William C. Smith, Squire's successor in charge of the department's music, in Volumes II–III (1929). Moreover, of late years a large number of the rare first issues of the works of the great composers from Mozart to Beethoven have been secured, chiefly

from Vienna, and it has been worthwhile to produce a second supplement, by Smith, to the catalog of music printed before 1800 which Squire compiled and the trustees published in 1912.

There has been no general catalog of printed maps since 1885, but between the wars a number of facsimiles have been issued: G. M. Contarini's map of the world of 1506 (1924); two contemporary maps of Drake's voyage round the world (1927); four maps—these being, of course, manuscript—of Great Britain by Matthew Paris; a new acquisition, Baptista Boazio's map of Ireland about 1600 (1939); and the whole series of Christopher Saxton's maps of the counties of England and Wales, 1574-79 (1936). The last two are reproduced in five-color collotype by Emery Walker & Co., and, with the other facsimiles of printed maps, have been edited by the present superintendent of the map room, Mr. Edward Lynam.

These twenty years, and especially the first few, were a time of high prices in the saleroom, and the Museum fared but ill there, especially at the Britwell sales, in competition with such adversaries as the late Mr. H. E. Huntington. But most valuable help has been given by the new society of Friends of the National Libraries, formed on the model of the National Art Collections Fund, and many important—and some surprising—lacunae have been filled. Such are the original editions of *Tristram Shandy* and Smart's *Song to David*, while Canning's own copy of *The Anti-Jacobin*, with his autograph notes of the authorship of the various pieces, is a notable acquisition. A considerable body of Tudor books has also been added, Caxton himself being represented. Special attention has been paid to the minor and early publications of Erasmus.

In preparation for, or by the use of, the short-title lists it has been possible to pick up many early French and Iberian books. Of the Iberian acquisitions, three unrecorded *unica* were thought worth publishing in facsimile, edited by Dr. Thomas. Two are Spanish devotional poems from the first Toledo press; the third (*Carta das Novas* [Lisbon, 1521]) is no less than the contemporary report of the first penetration of Abyssinia, which had been made by Portuguese explorers in the previous year. Another class, which keepers are debarred by a salutary prin-

ciple from spending public money on, has been enriched by private gifts. This is the art of contemporary bookbinders.

But much the largest and most notable addition to the printed books, and a very notable one to the manuscripts also, was the celebrated Ashley library of the English poets, formed by the late Thomas James Wise. Wise as a young man had had much help and encouragement from Richard Garnett, and he long intended to bequeath his collection to the Museum. But after the war of 1914-18 he found himself, as did many others, a poorer man than he had been—he was never really wealthy—and he instructed his trustees to offer the collection to the Museum at a friendly price. After his death in 1937 they did so, accepting perhaps half its market value. Had Wise, who was childless, foreseen that his widow would follow him in a year, he might have fulfilled his original intention. It has been argued that, as a large proportion of the books are duplicates of copies already in the Museum, the collection was not worth buying. But the Museum's copies, especially of books of the last century and a half, were very often worn by use in the reading room before their value was suspected, and were rebound and otherwise unsuitable, not only for the fine points of which a pristine condition allows investigation, but also for exhibition during centenary celebrations. A room has been set aside in which the whole collection can be kept together, as Wise desired.⁶

In the Museum library one is either a printed books man or a manuscripts man or an orientalist. I was the first, and therefore invade the province of the other two with diffidence. But the manuscripts were the egg from which the library was hatched and, though I have only a secondhand knowledge of them, I cannot omit them.

The most sensational episode in the Museum's history, perhaps, was the purchase from the Soviet government in 1934 of the *Codex Sinaiticus*, which had been presented by the monks of St. Catherine to the tsar at Tischendorf's instance, the monks

⁶ The melancholy story of the forged "pre-firsts" is unfortunately all that most people know of Wise and his library, but he will be known by his true achievement when they have sunk into their relative unimportance.

regarding it as worthless and considering themselves amply rewarded by imperial honors. Not only did the abbot of St. Catherine claim its return when he heard of the price asked for it, but a notorious newspaper proprietor used the proposed purchase as a stick with which to beat Ramsay Macdonald, who, as Prime Minister, greatly assisted the purchase. The Museum was flooded with hostile newspaper men as well as with the welcome contributions of enthusiasts. In the end, as is known, the purchase was completed and the government, which had lent half and guaranteed half the £93,000 left when the trustees had put up their little nest egg of £7,000, in the end paid rather over £30,000, or much less than has been given for a picture. One innocent enthusiast asked whether a translation could not be made of the *Codex* and was disappointed on being told that several existed already and that he had one in his Bible. The true value of the *Codex* was later brought out by a volume, *Scribes and correctors of the Codex Sinaiticus* (1938), by H. J. M. Milne and T. C. Skeat of the department of manuscripts.

A later and (if less sensational) very important purchase in the biblical field was that of two fragments on papyrus of an unknown gospel. These were published in 1935 by the keeper, H. Idris Bell,⁷ and Skeat.

Among the most remarkable acquisitions of manuscripts between wars was a series of examples of English illumination. Chief of these are the celebrated Luttrell Psalter and the previously unknown Bedford Hours and Psalter, which came up for sale together in 1929 from the Lulworth Castle library. With unexampled generosity the Museum's chief natural competitor, Mr. John Pierpont Morgan, advanced the entire purchase price (£64,000) free of interest for a year, and thus secured the two books for the Museum, the money being raised in time by the National Art Collections Fund and friends. Of the Luttrell Psalter it is enough to say that, while it is an example of the decadence of East Anglian illumination, it is also the basis of much of our knowledge of English social life just before the Black

⁷ Dr. Bell, the present keeper, succeeded that silent polymath, Julius Parnell Gilson, in 1929. In the Oriental Library Dr. Lionel Barnett was succeeded in the same year by Dr. Lionel Giles, the well-known Sinologist, who retired in 1941.

Death. The trustees produced a full facsimile (1932), edited by Eric George Millar and dedicated to Mr. Morgan—no other Museum book bears a dedication. The Bedford book, made for the same owner as the famous Parisian Bedford Hours, once in the Harleian Library but retained by Lady Portland in 1753 and only acquired by the Museum exactly a century later, is of English work about 1415—i.e., it is a specimen of the last phase of English illumination. It is unique in possessing some three hundred delicately individualized miniature heads, which may be portraits.

Among other monuments of English illumination acquired in these years is the Abingdon Apocalypse, belonging to the thirteenth-century type with half the page devoted to picture and half to text. It is associated with Canterbury by the famous example at Lawbeth. A manuscript note in the volume records that in 1362 it was loaned by the Abbey of Abingdon to Queen Joan of Scotland. The Evesham Psalter is a fine and very different example of the same period. Of the next century is the M. R. James Psalter, which was written for use in the Diocese of Durham. It was subscribed for and presented by friends of the late Dr. Montague Rhodes James, since its undoubted English origin settles that of the Psalter (Egerton MS 1894), certainly from the same scriptorium and perhaps by the same hand, which James, when he edited it for the Roxburghe Club, thought might be English but had to leave of doubtful origin. Such acquisitions as these enable us to look with a philosophic eye on the departure of the Tickhill Psalter to the New York Public Library. In making them the Museum has had repeated help from the National Art Collections Fund and from private friends.

As is the *General catalogue* to the Department of Printed Books, so is the *Catalogue of additions* to that of Manuscripts. The war and reduced staff, together with the high modern standard of cataloging, made it impossible to keep so closely up to date as had been achieved under Bond, Maunde Thompson, and Warner. But two quinquennial volumes were produced, ending at 1925. Side by side with this current duty is that of bringing the old catalogs up to modern standards of ful-

ness and modern knowledge. In 1921, after many years of work, Gilson, with his predecessor, Warner, produced in four splendid volumes a new catalog of the Royal and King's MSS. The MSS of the Old Royal Library had not been cataloged since David Casley, who, spurred by the fire at Ashburnham House in 1731, devoted two years (which then seemed a long time) to the work and in 1734 published his catalog, not a bad one for anyone of the time except Humphrey Wanley. Which collection is to be recataloged next is not certain; the Cotton and the Harleian both need it badly, but the latter will be an enormous task. And until all the collections are represented by modern catalogs the printing of the class catalog cannot be contemplated.

Other publications of the period were continuations of the series of *Reproductions from illuminated manuscripts and schools of illumination* and a facsimile of an eleventh-century Exultet Roll from Monte Cassino, published in 1929 in honor of the fourteenth centenary of the Abbey's foundation by St. Benedict. The literary papyri, so immensely enriched by the excavations of the Egypt Exploration Society in the previous generation, were cataloged by Milne and the result published in 1927. And in 1928 Dr. Robin Flower completed a second volume (of three projected) of the *Catalogue of Irish manuscripts*, of which the first volume had been compiled many years before by Standish O'Grady.

In other respects the annals of the department are short and simple. The students' room was somewhat enlarged and space was acquired for storage from the former newspaper shelves (as already noted) and otherwise. A great increase of photostat and later of microfilming was experienced by the Museum in common with other libraries. Equipment for deciphering faded manuscripts was installed, the first apparatus set up being a fluorescent cabinet which I am glad to recall was the gift of the lamented Professor John Matthews Manly.

Many of the facts I have set out in this condensed summary will probably be known to a large number of those who will read this. But they may be grateful to have them gathered together, and this I have attempted to do in the foregoing pages.

THE BIBLIOTHEQUE NATIONALE DURING THE LAST DECADE: FUNDAMENTAL CHANGES AND CONSTRUCTIVE ACHIEVEMENT

JOSÉ MEYER

THE wealth and variety of collections in French libraries have always attracted foreign visitors, but the difficulties encountered when working in institutions far behind the times in material equipment and research facilities have often discouraged their patient efforts. Americans in particular have been frequent visitors to the National Library of France, and they know well the obstacles with which their search for information has been beset. They remember the complicated catalogs which could not be used without the help of a guide and their astonishment at the lack of intellectual and material conveniences that are an integral part of their own libraries, organized solely with a view to facilitating the task of the research worker. The purpose of these notes is to report on the efforts made over a period of ten years to modernize a great institution with several centuries of traditions, and thus enable it to hold its rank among the world's great centers of learning.

SITUATION OF THE BIBLIOTHÈQUE NATIONALE IN 1930

The general situation of the Bibliothèque Nationale in 1930 was such as to cause grave concern for its future in spite of all the efforts of its active and enterprising administrator, M. Roland-Marcel. There had been some improvements, of course. In 1925 a law had been passed tightening the provisions of the legal deposit act. This resulted in increased effectiveness and a more universal compliance with its clauses. In 1929 an agreement had been reached with certain large American libraries, making it possible to speed up the preparation and publication of the *Catalogue général*.

A grant from the Rockefeller Foundation in 1930 had pro-

vided the funds for the purchase of indispensable foreign material, long badly needed, and for the binding of arrears accumulated during years of insufficient appropriation. Finally, public interest had been aroused by a series of expositions in the library, all of which had proved very successful.

All these measures, however, remained isolated attempts to remedy a situation which called for a major operation tackling the problem in its entirety. The library was crowded to the point of suffocation. There had been three million books in 1900, but since then their number had increased by another million. The central stack for printed matter held barely one-half of this collection, the remainder being scattered through various attics, unprotected against dangerous variations in temperature and humidity.

The manuscripts were no better off. The chiefs of the several departments were in a permanent state of alarm over the danger menacing irreplaceable collections thus packed together.

The internal services, such as the legal deposit, the accessions, and the catalog, inventory, and binding sections, had been compelled to give up to the all-pervading flood of books year after year ever increasing portions of the space allotted to them. As a result, working conditions in these services were deplorable.

The meagerness of appropriations (a consequence of the French financial crisis) was such that, in spite of considerable efforts made during these last years, the binding—to quote only one example—is still several hundred thousand volumes in arrears. These volumes had to be shelved in their paper covers.

Between 1920 and 1928 the published volumes of the *Catalogue général* had fallen to four, then to three, and finally to an all-time low of two volumes per year. Other catalogs begun earlier remained unfinished. In the *Bibliographie de la France* the annual subject index was dispensed with for reasons of economy. The catalogs of manuscripts, medals, and prints suffered great delay. However, a few fine pieces of specialized work kept alive the scholarly reputation of the institution, thus demonstrating what could have been accomplished had the necessary means been provided.

Need for a general reform.—In the course of its long history the Bibliothèque Nationale has experienced several periods of financial stringency alternating with brief spells of prosperity. The first half of the nineteenth century can be described as a perpetual crisis, growing worse from decade to decade until a great administrator, Taschereau, assisted by a great architect, Labrousse, undertook a basic transformation. Extending their plan of alterations over a period of twenty years, from 1855 to 1875, these two men gave the Bibliothèque Nationale the exterior appearance which it retains today. Then, for a span of fifty-five years, the library lived on the impetus received during those twenty years of extensive rebuilding. Again, in the course of these last ten years, a fresh impulse has been given which has affected every department of the library and which, it is hoped, will leave a lasting influence.

The charge of the administrator-general of the Bibliothèque Nationale grew more and more complex as the number of departments increased and their scope became ever wider. During the ten years of M. Julien Cain's administration, from May 1, 1930, to July 23, 1940, a number of new services were established and the field of action of existing departments was greatly expanded. This period may best be characterized as one of far-reaching material, technical, and intellectual change, the last determining the first as befits a scholarly institution.

CHANGES IN THE GENERAL ORGANIZATION

The addition of four important new departments to the traditional four divisions of the Bibliothèque Nationale is one of the outstanding events of the last ten years. First, the Bibliothèque Mazarine was brought under the administration of the National Library in 1930; the Arsenal Library in 1934; the music libraries of the Opera and of the Conservatory of Music in 1935; and, finally, in 1938, the documentation center formerly connected with the Ministry of Commerce and the Ministry of National Economy. At the same time the Department of Printed Books, the most important in the library, added a number of new services to the traditional forms of library service and extended to

research workers vastly improved facilities, which included newly opened reading rooms equipped with all the instruments of study.

The complexities of the task of administering an institution of this type, bound in many ways by its historical background and deep-rooted traditions, while striving to keep abreast of modern needs, can be referred to only in passing. When the Bibliothèque Nationale was granted "civil personality" and financial autonomy under the control of the minister of finance, this step meant a more flexible financial organization for the library, but, at the same time, additional heavy responsibility for the administrator-general, in particular when he was intrusted with the financial management of the fund set aside for structural alterations.

Financially, in 1940, the situation of the Bibliothèque Nationale was greatly improved. The regular income from the ordinary budget was provided by the government appropriation totaling 845,000 francs (about \$35,000) in 1929 and 4,000,000 francs in 1940 (about \$95,000). The exceptional or temporary income was derived from the extraordinary budget. This made special funds available for major building operations as part of a large-scale plan for public works and for the relief of unemployment. A special contribution from the Caisse de la Recherche Scientifique (the National Research Fund) covered the cost of publishing the various catalogs in book form. These extraordinary credits made it possible to carry out over a period of years certain carefully established plans for important construction work and architectural alterations of existing buildings, on the one hand, and certain scholarly enterprises, on the other.

STRUCTURAL CHANGES AND NEW BUILDINGS

The number of problems arising in connection with the planned rejuvenation of the library was so great and the problems were all so interwoven that it became necessary to establish an order of precedence according to their relative urgency. The problem of space, in the opinion of M. Cain, was the root of most of the library's difficulties. If the collections were to be

preserved for posterity and the work organized judiciously and profitably, a thorough modernization of existing conveniences and the construction of additional quarters were urgently needed. The execution and partial completion of these two parallel plans was made possible only through additional funds taken on a large scale from the special government appropriation for public works made available in addition to the regular amount from the ordinary budget. These extraordinary funds were granted three times, in 1932, 1934, and 1936, for the purpose of carrying out a previously established, all-embracing plan approved by the government.

Since the quarters of the Department of Medals were the most recent and fairly satisfactory, it was decided to concentrate all efforts on the other departments—those of Manuscripts, Prints, and, above all, the Department of Printed Books. Here the problems, arising from the huge quantity of books awaiting the various processes of library routine before being stored for preservation, were of the most serious nature. The lack of space had produced a degree of disorder and confusion which threatened to engulf the other services as well.

The methods to be used were, of course, primarily determined by existing conditions. Since the library building is bounded by four completely built-up streets in the center of Paris, any kind of expansion in a horizontal direction was out of the question. New space had to be found in depth, and, after sufficient consolidation of existing foundations, height could be added. In the process of this operation the old cellars were thoroughly transformed and made into a series of modern book stacks, to which a number of well-planned offices were added in the basement. Construction work was continued without interruption from 1932 to 1939 and, with only minor delays, even after the outbreak of war. Most of the complicated operations were carried out simultaneously; as a result the whole interior of the library was completely transformed in a relatively short time. These major alterations were made while all the library services continued as usual—not the least among the difficulties to be overcome. The final result of this work of adaptation is a series of

modern rooms within a historic shell. For reasons of architectural style the outer walls were left untouched everywhere.

General equipment of the building.—No doubt the American public, used to its own up-to-the-minute libraries, will be amazed to learn that the most urgent alterations at the Bibliothèque Nationale concerned the lighting system, heat, the telephone, freight elevators, and the like. Of all of these there were only rudiments in 1930. It was not until 1924 that electric light was installed in the Department of Printed Books. All other departments of the library remained dependent on daylight, with resulting irregular and often far too brief working hours. An electric-lighting system is now laid in the entire building, including all the stacks. This makes it possible for readers to consult books from any collection during the entire day. A powerful transformer and an emergency generator were installed underground under the central courtyard.

As for heating, the various old coal-burning furnaces, always a potential fire threat, were replaced by a modern "thermo center," which was also placed underground. This is fed by hot air from the central city heating plant (*Chauffage central urbain*). The installation was completed by a scientific ventilation and air-conditioning system. To reduce the fire hazard as much as possible, various fireproofing processes were applied. They are too technical to be described here, but the fireproof stairs throughout, the metal doors isolating different sections of the building in case of fire, and all-metal elevators and shafts may be mentioned. Finally, extensive sanitary improvements were made for both the staff and the public. The staff was also provided with locker-rooms, showers, and a lunchroom.

The new reading rooms of the Department of Printed Books.—The main reading room, totally inadequate for years, could not be enlarged for architectural reasons. Instead, a solution for the problem of overcrowding was sought by providing additional seating space elsewhere, while the reference collection was gradually rounded out so as to answer the needs of a larger number of readers and research workers. Four new reading rooms were organized and almost immediately it was found that the service

in general was much facilitated. These were the new reading rooms: (a) the catalog and bibliography room; (b) the rare book room (commonly known as "Réserve"); (c) the periodical reading room; and (d) the reading room in the Versailles Annex. Altogether, counting the geography room, the Department of Printed Books now has six reading rooms.

The catalog and bibliography room was opened to the public in 1934 and considerably enlarged three years later. It is located under the general reading room, with which it is connected by a double staircase. In it has been brought together a collection of bibliographical reference tools which, it is believed, is unique in Europe. Although inspired in part by the *Auskunftsbureau der deutschen Bibliotheken* in Berlin, its total conception is novel and more suitable for the French research worker. The nucleus of the reference collection consists of all the catalogs of the Bibliothèque Nationale and catalogs of other libraries—French and foreign—the most important of which is the Library of Congress depository card catalog arranged by classification numbers. In addition to these, all the bibliographical material, formerly dispersed in the various sections and stacks of the Bibliothèque Nationale, has been grouped in this room, arranged by subjects. A unique feature is the so-called "central documentation index" on cards, which was begun in 1930. Arranged as a dictionary catalog, it includes cards for all the Bibliothèque Nationale catalogs and collections, for outside libraries and research centers, their collections and specialization, bibliographies, and, since January 1, 1931, analyticals for French and foreign library and bibliographical periodicals. The underlying idea was to provide a bibliography of bibliographies in card form supplemented by oral information.

The newly opened rare book room, conveniently located between the general reading room and the rare book stack, was designed particularly for the use of scholars. Its reference collection contains chiefly works dealing with the history of printing, book illustration, and bibliophily. Provisionally, it is used also for work in connection with the music collection. Ultimately, it was planned to organize a separate room for music.

The periodical room, usually referred to as "Hémérothèque de Paris," was finally installed in the huge "oval room," which had seen various fortunes since work on it was begun at the turn of the century. A public reading room for a time, with a direct entrance from the street, it was closed when attendance dwindled. Later work was resumed, and it was remodeled to serve as a newspaper and periodical reading room. (There had been a great need for a separate periodical room, as previously only one table in the general reading room had been set aside for current periodicals.) Its oval shape, once the subject of bitter criticism, proved to be peculiarly suitable for the display of some six thousand current periodicals, grouped by subject. Any of these can be obtained within a few minutes. The adjoining stack is used for the larger part of the eighteenth- and nineteenth-century daily newspapers of Paris. The provincial newspapers, on the other hand, are stored in the new Versailles Annex. Readers find in the "oval room" a comprehensive collection of reference books on current topics, which includes a large group of yearbooks, directories, dictionaries, encyclopedias, and manuals of the various branches of knowledge.

Processing rooms and offices for the staff.—For the first time in the history of the Bibliothèque Nationale adequate space was provided for the preliminary handling and sorting of the immense flood of books and periodicals pouring steadily into the library. A system of alcoves and specially designed shelving were planned to facilitate provisional sorting and distribution of the material. Modern offices with up-to-date equipment were provided for the librarians and library assistants. In order to make the recording of newly acquired material more speedy and more efficient, the cardex and related indexing methods were introduced, chiefly for periodicals and continuations. The section of legal deposit, which receives the entire output of the French publishing and printing industries, was reorganized in spacious and scientifically planned quarters conveniently located near the entrance of the building.

Remodeling of the central stack.—The central book stack, built before 1870 by Labrousse, had long been considered a model of

its kind. However, contrary to expectations, it soon proved inadequate for the mass of incoming books. Various expedients tending to increase the available storage space, such as additional shelving in the aisles, were attempted, but failed to solve the problem for more than a short while. When all other possibilities had been exhausted, the attics were used for storage purposes—a most dangerous and impractical solution. Certain alterations in the central stack had been undertaken in the twenties and were completed after 1930. The newly acquired space was, however, woefully insufficient for any length of time. Only a major structural operation could provide the necessary space for the coming years. This operation consisted in the construction of a huge two-story underground stack under the old central book stack and along the two flanks of the building facing the Rue de Richelieu and the Rue des Petits-Champs. Simultaneously new and more powerful foundations were built to support not only the additional weight of the underground stacks but also, sometime in the future, additions in height to the central stack.

This technically difficult operation was carried out, like all the other alterations, without a day's interruption of the regular library service. Coincidentally entire collections had to be shifted several times. This provided the opportunity for a more systematic and at the same time more practical arrangement of the books, which in turn resulted in more efficient service to the readers. Newly installed book carriers, elevators, and a system of pneumatic tubes for transmission of request slips from the reading room to both old and new stacks contributed much to the generally recognized improvement of the service. Altogether, in the course of these alterations, some 20 kilometers (12½ miles) of new shelving were made available.

The Versailles Annex.—The problem of space for printed matter could not be solved in a permanent manner within the Bibliothèque Nationale. Following the example of the British Museum, it was decided to transfer certain bulky and little-used collections (including provincial newspaper files and secondary periodicals of purely local interest) from the library building in

Paris to an annex. This was built not in Paris, where no suitable site was available, but in Versailles. Architecturally this structure is a departure from traditional conceptions. Its style is strictly functional. There are eight stories, two of which are basement floors with daylight partly provided through the use of so-called "English yards" (areas). An adjacent vacant lot of considerable size was to be used eventually for four additional buildings connected by galleries. This scheme permitted a single service division for all the buildings, representing a considerable saving in personnel.

The first of these buildings was completed in 1934. It contains 20 kilometers ($12\frac{1}{2}$ miles) of stacks, with a reading room for readers wishing to use the collections on the spot. However, this material is used more often in Paris, since there is a regular daily motor service between the library in Paris and the Versailles Annex.

The manuscripts department.—The Department of Manuscripts, which is equaled in wealth only by the British Museum, demanded its share of improvements, since part of its priceless collections was still stored in attics. The upper part of a wing giving onto the court of honor was therefore rebuilt and lined with concrete in such a way as to resemble a huge safe, affording the maximum protection against fire as well as against theft. Any abnormal increase in temperature automatically starts off an extinguishing mechanism using a neutral gas absolutely harmless to documents. A number of extra decks in this section provide ample storage space for some time to come.

The Department of Prints.—The alterations in this wing were by far the boldest and on a larger scale than any of the previously described operations. First, the larger part of the print collection was temporarily moved to the mansion of Salomon de Rothschild, which had long housed the Art and Archeology Library. Next a group of old buildings without architectural character were demolished, leaving only the façade standing. This was the only portion dating back to the middle of the seventeenth century. Behind this period setting, work was begun on a modern structure specifically designed for its purpose. Eight

stories of stacks, of which three were underground, were to be topped by the public study room, lighted from above. This arrangement is thought to be entirely original. Completed, it would have been the largest prints room in existence. The original plan also provides for a permanent exhibit hall. François Mansart's old lower gallery, extending under the Galerie Mazarine with its seventeenth-century *décor*, is the ideal setting for this. Its original style had been disfigured through clumsy additions. In 1926 the generosity of Mrs. Florence Blumenthal made possible the expert restoration which has brought to light the original proportions and the delicately sculptured and painted ornaments. Used over a period of years as a public study room, this gallery would form a harmonious background for a continuous display of graphic art, thus constituting a museum of engraving, the first of its kind in France.

INCREASE OF THE COLLECTIONS

Acquisitions and gifts of outstanding importance have added to the wealth of the several departments, especially the manuscripts division, to such an extent that this recent period will be remembered as one of the fortunate ones in the history of the library. Among the generous donors who have encouraged and sometimes actively shared the efforts of the Bibliothèque Nationale, the following may be mentioned: Mr. Gerschel, Mr. George Blumenthal of New York, and M. Henri de Rothschild for the Department of Printed Books; Mr. Seymour de Ricci, M. Allard du Chollet, and M. Henri de Rothschild for the Department of Manuscripts; M. C. de Beistegui for the Department of Medals; and M. Bédot and Sir David Salomons for the Prints Division.

Since, according to French law, all books, pamphlets, periodicals, etc., printed in France must be deposited at the Bibliothèque Nationale—this is called “*Dépôt légal*”—the library is naturally interested in the smooth and efficient functioning of this service. There was a steady improvement in this respect during the last ten years, following more stringent measures to enforce compliance with existing legislation. The average num-

ber of books annually deposited (excluding periodicals, music, and maps, which are reckoned separately) amounts to about 13,000 items. Deposits of periodicals were much improved following the law of December 29, 1933, which called for deposit directly with the Bibliothèque Nationale. Indirectly, the completion of the new periodical reading room and the opening of the Versailles Annex for storage contributed to this improvement, since they made possible a more effective system of checking lacunae.

Book purchases were steadily increased as a result of consistently larger appropriations. These funds were used primarily to build up collections of foreign books and periodicals and to continue series. It was felt that the Bibliothèque Nationale should continue to fulfil its function of advancing learning and scholarship and must build for the future, leaving to the many specialized libraries of Paris the task of acquiring special monographs and publications of temporary interest.

The department was given an opportunity to bid at several important auction sales and to purchase a number of rare and valuable books for its "Réserve." Year after year, many generous gifts came to this department from both French and foreign individuals and from several institutions as well. The Bibliothèque Nationale regularly exchanged its publications with certain foreign publications. The maps and music sections spared no effort to build up systematically their modern collections. They were fortunate in securing a number of rare items, which in recent times have usually gone to private collectors.

The outstanding acquisitions of those last years, however, were made by the Department of Manuscripts. All its collections were enriched, but most of all its collection of French manuscripts.

Certain groups of documents acquired, such as registers, chartularies, charters, political papers, and correspondence, are important for French historical research. Among these may be mentioned the letters of Marshal Turenne; those of Rewbell, a member of the revolutionary Convention; and those of General Boulanger. Of a more general historical interest are letters of

Catherine II, empress of Russia. Others concern French literary history from the Middle Ages to modern times; these include documents relating to Rabelais and La Fontaine, manuscripts of Flaubert, Zola, and Anatole France, and, most important in this group, a gift of over fifteen hundred letters of Voltaire; also the manuscripts of two of Flaubert's most famous novels, *Salammbô* and *La Tentation de Saint Antoine*, and the manuscripts of Montesquieu's *Esprit des lois* and Alfred de Vigny's *Chatterton*. In the field of foreign literature there are the letters of Richard Wagner to Judith Gautier, poems by Kipling, and a number of Greek, Persian, and Armenian manuscripts. The Bibliothèque Nationale even had the good fortune of being able to add such choice items as the *Légendier de Saint-Petersbourg*, the *Petites heures d'Anne de Bretagne*, and the *Livre d'heures de Jean sans Peur* to its admirable collection of illuminated manuscripts.

Special mention may be made of the much-publicized purchase of 318 letters of Napoleon to Marie-Louise in a London sale in 1934, for which parliament voted a special sum. These letters were immediately translated and published in both hemispheres. The autograph collection received as a gift Baron Henri de Rothschild's valuable collection of over five thousand documents.

Acquisitions of prints and medals were made on a strictly systematic basis with a view to completing both old and new series, for which the preparation of catalogs was begun. Many a print or medal neglected by collectors takes on special significance when inserted in its proper place in a series. In addition, a great many gifts were received. The Department of Prints owes to private generosity its boast of a collection in which the French contemporary school of engraving is represented in full.

CARE AND CONSERVATION OF THE COLLECTIONS

Lack of personnel and of funds had been responsible in the past for much neglect in the physical care of the collections. A systematic campaign of cleaning and dusting was undertaken

and, whenever possible, the publications were bound. Ways and means were found to bind not only all current accessions but also part of the accumulated arrears. The appropriation for binding, previously amounting to 332,000 francs, was increased to 670,000 francs. However, the situation in this respect remains very serious, and special measures will have to be taken if the collections are to be preserved for posterity.

CATALOGS AND BIBLIOGRAPHICAL PROJECTS

The learned character of an institution like the Bibliothèque Nationale should find its expression in the scholarly work which it produces and above all in the catalogs which its staff prepares and publishes. From this point of view the years from 1930 to 1940 were one of the most productive periods in its history.

A distinction should be made between work of this type intended merely for internal use and that which is of interest to scholars at large. All librarians are duty bound to catalog the books intrusted to their care, but only collections of exceptional value or rarity call for the publication of catalogs in the form of printed volumes. The task of the Bibliothèque Nationale was therefore twofold: on the one hand, all current finding lists, card catalogs, and indexes were constantly improved; on the other hand, a number of catalogs were published which may be regarded as scholarly contributions to the best type of library literature. The cost of printing these catalogs amounted to about 300,000 francs in 1930. This amount was doubled in 1939.

Department of Printed Books.—The *Bibliographie de la France* is the only official catalog of current French book production. The bibliographical compilation was done at the Bibliothèque Nationale, while the Cercle de la Librairie was in charge of the publishing. A serious effort was made to meet the justified criticism concerning its shortcomings. Following the reform of the system of legal deposit in 1935, it was possible to cut down the delay in listing new publications, since deposit was being effected more promptly and more universally. The number of pages was increased and there were included special sections for music, maps, prints, translations from foreign languages, new

periodicals, and doctoral dissertations (the latter since October, 1932). Several indexes, particularly a systematic index, should facilitate the use of this repertory.

An attempt was made in 1937 to print the entries separately on cards of standard international size to be used by other libraries for their catalogs, but lack of funds made it necessary to interrupt the experiment.

The *Bulletin des acquisitions étrangères* had been discontinued in 1929 owing to lack of funds. It was resumed in 1931, and the intervening gap was filled in a few years. Special numbers were published for exceptionally large shipments of publications received from Canada and the Argentine Republic.

Between 1930 and 1940, sixty-one volumes of the *Catalogue général des livres imprimés* (XCVIII-CLVIII, covering entries from "Liell" to "Rukser") were published. At the time war broke out, the end of this huge bibliographical enterprise, begun in 1897, was in sight. Had it been possible to maintain the output of the preceding years, the catalog would now be completed. The agreement reached in 1927 by M. Roland-Marcel with a group of American libraries, and the subsequent financial assistance from the Rockefeller Foundation, went far toward helping achieve this goal.

It was the policy of M. Cain's administration to facilitate in every possible way the work of research in the Bibliothèque Nationale. This could best be achieved by simplifying the complicated system of catalogs. To this end the following operations were carried out: (a) the three series of catalogs for "Authors and anonymous works," 1882-94, 1894-1925, and 1925-35, were consolidated into a single alphabet; (b) a catalog of literary works by title was established; (c) beginning with 1936, all entries were made on cards of standard international format; and (d) beginning with 1936, the catchword catalog was replaced by a subject catalog arranged systematically.

Of the special catalogs, both the Index to the previously published *Catalogue de l'histoire de France* and the Index to the *Catalogue des factums ... antérieurs à 1790* were completed. Work was resumed on Isnard's *Catalogue des actes royaux* and

Volume II was finally published. In line with the policy of complementing the general author catalog by subject catalogs describing various groups of the collections corresponding to the large sections of the classification adopted, the publication of a *Catalogue de l'histoire de la Révolution française* by André Martin and Gérard Walter was undertaken. Three volumes have appeared to date. The catalog, which will be one of the major bibliographical contributions of the library, will be complete in five volumes.

The new system adopted for the classification and preservation of periodicals of every description provided the basis for a large-scale inventory of this enormous mass of material, hitherto incompletely and unscientifically listed. A grant from the Caisse de la Recherche Scientifique enabled the library to engage a staff of trained library workers for the compilation of a union catalog of periodicals in Paris libraries.

A similar method, made possible by financial assistance from the Caisse de la Recherche Scientifique, was used for the cataloging of the music collection, large sections of which remain as yet unexplored. A staff of specialists was engaged, and a set of specific rules for the treatment of the material was elaborated through the combined efforts of professional librarians and musicologists. As a result, part of the collection at the Bibliothèque Nationale has already been cataloged, while work on the collections in the Opera and Conservatory libraries was making good progress in 1940. Since these two libraries were then under the same administration as the Bibliothèque Nationale, complete uniformity of treatment was possible.

The growing need for an authoritative list, together with insistent requests from certain foreign countries, especially from the United States, was the immediate motive for undertaking in 1938 the inventory of French official publications. The Bibliothèque Nationale was designated by decree to take charge of the compilation and the publication of the list. As a first step, detailed questionnaires were sent to every government department and institution. This was followed up by personal checking of titles in the different departmental libraries and the official printing establishments. The first part, dealing with the

central administration, has been compiled and was to have appeared in print in June, 1940. Part two was to include the publications of learned bodies, maps, and charts; part three, the publications of the departments and municipalities; part four, colonial publications. Simultaneously with the bibliographical work, efforts were made to collect all current official publications as a nucleus for the planned central administrative library. It was hoped that the inventory would, above all, facilitate international exchange of official publications. This exchange has not functioned efficiently in France and has been the object of justified complaints.

Department of Manuscripts.—The manuscript collections of the Bibliothèque Nationale transcend in importance the needs of a purely local group of scholars. During the last ten years a number of new catalogs were published, based on a scholarly method which has won world-wide recognition.

A new revised edition of the *Catalogue alphabétique des livres mis à la disposition des lecteurs ... suivi de la liste des catalogues usuels* was issued in 1933. It constitutes a bibliographical handbook of reference works, chiefly in the humanities, for a large manuscripts collection. Five volumes of the alphabetical index of the *Catalogue général des manuscrits français*, prepared by A. Vidier and P. Perrier, were published and the *Inventaire sommaire des nouvelles acquisitions des fonds latin et français* was completed. A new edition of the *Liste des recueils de fac-similés et des reproductions de manuscrits conservés à la Bibliothèque Nationale* was prepared and published by H. Omont and Ph. Lauer. Also the following: Volume IV of the *Catalogue du fonds tibétain*; the *Répertoire du Tadjur* by Marcelle Lalou; the *Catalogue des manuscrits de la collection Bliss* by H. Omont, M. Auvray, and M. Bondonis; the *Catalogue des manuscrits turcs* by E. Blochet; Volume IV of the *Catalogue des manuscrits persans* by the same author; and the final volume of the *Catalogue des manuscrits de la collection Clairambault* by Ph. Lauer.

Surpassing all of these in scope and importance, two major undertakings of the greatest interest to scholars all over the world were finally got well under way: the catalog of Latin manuscripts and the catalog of oriental collections. Since an en-

terprise of this magnitude goes far beyond the ordinary means of the Bibliothèque Nationale, an arrangement similar to that adopted for the *Union catalog of periodicals* and for the *Music catalog* was adopted. A staff of specialists not regularly connected with the Bibliothèque Nationale and remunerated through a grant from the Caisse de la Recherche Scientifique was put to work under the direction of officials in the Department of Manuscripts. The first volume of the catalog of Latin manuscripts was issued in 1939. It was estimated that there would be twenty volumes in all. Simultaneously work on the oriental collections made good progress and several catalogs (specifically, those dealing with Tibetan, Chinese, and Ethiopian manuscripts) were in press in 1940.

Department of Medals.—The more important catalogs published during the past ten years are the following: *Le Trésor du cabinet des antiques* by Jean Babelon (3 vols.); *Les Pierres gravées; guide du visiteur* by David-Lesuffleur; *Catalogue des monnaies françaises: monnaies capétiennes*, Volume II, by A. Dieudonné; *Catalogue des jetons des princes et princesses de la Maison de France* by P. Pradel; *Catalogue de la collection de Luynes: monnaies grecques*, Volume III, by Jean Babelon; and catalogs of the Beistegui and Froehner collections, the latter by Louis Robert.

Department of Prints.—Of the *Inventaire du fonds français*, seven volumes were issued: *Graveurs, XVI^e siècle* by A. Linzeler and J. Adhémar (2 vols. and Index); *Graveurs, XVIII^e siècle* by M. Roux (3 vols.); and *Inventaire du fonds français après 1800* by Jean Laran (2 vols.). The first volume of *Graveurs du XVII^e siècle* was in course of preparation by R. Weigert. Other publications include: *L'Œuvre gravée d'Eugène Bérjot* by Jean Laran; *Inventaire général des dessins des écoles du nord* by Frits Lugt and J. Vallery-Radot; *Estampes et dessins de Corot* by P.-A. Lemoisne and Jean Laran; *Le Château de Fontainebleau* by Herbert; and *Inventaire analytique de la collection de Vinck*, Volume V, by A.-M. Rosset.

The Arsenal Library.—Turning to the Arsenal Library, at least one catalog was recently published, the *Catalogue des livres*

de musique by La Laurencie and Amédée Gastoué. It includes both manuscripts and printed books.

THE STAFF OF THE BIBLIOTHÈQUE NATIONALE

Fully conscious of the rank of the Bibliothèque Nationale among the great libraries of the world, the administrator chose his collaborators with the greatest possible care in order to maintain the scholarly reputation of the library intrusted to his direction. Over a number of years, the Bibliothèque Nationale sought to enrol the services of young scholars specializing in some branch of learning for which the universities offered no career, such as specialists in numismatics, historical geography, or history of the book, certain orientalists, and certain types of musicologists.

MISCELLANEOUS ACTIVITIES OF THE BIBLIOTHÈQUE NATIONALE

Exhibits.—Over fifty exhibits were organized at the library during the last ten years. In these, all the departments played their part. The displays were extremely varied, in size as well as in subject matter and in form of presentation.

Some were organized to commemorate an event, such as the founding of the Collège de France or the French Academy; a school of literature, such as symbolism; the anniversary of some great writer, French or foreign, such as Rabelais, Calvin, Descartes, Corneille, Goethe; or some outstanding statesman, such as George Washington or Gambetta. Others were planned to illustrate some particular aspect of art, such as the art of Iran, the French miniature painters, or the work of a specific artist, as Pisanello, Jacques Callot, Francisco Goya, or Corot. It is impossible to mention them all. What they had in common was the individual character of the subject selected and the truly scientific preparation of each display, as reflected in the various catalogs published for the occasion. Several among these, the fruit of painstaking research, could well take the place of bibliographical or pictorial handbooks of the subject. There was such a demand for these catalogs that several were already out of print in 1940. During this same time the Bibliothèque Na-

tionale participated in many expositions organized by the Louvre and other French museums, as well as in several international expositions held in London, Milan, Leningrad, Cologne, Warsaw, and New York.

Library co-operation and co-operative bibliography.—The co-operation of the Bibliothèque Nationale in widely varying fields was sought by French and foreign libraries. First, in execution of resolutions adopted by various international organizations and congresses, the Bibliothèque Nationale was appointed officially as headquarters for the French service of interlibrary loans. In the last years these loans became more frequent and requests were filled with greater speed as the general service in the library improved.

Second, the photoduplication service was reorganized for the purpose of facilitating research and making available to French and foreign scholars material ordinarily not within their reach. The old workroom, which had long been inadequate, was replaced in 1935 by a large laboratory equipped with the most modern apparatus. However, it was decided to subordinate other methods of reproduction to the microfilm, which, it was felt, held the greatest promise. Public interest in this fairly recent development had been aroused by the demonstration made by an American group in the Library Section of the Paris Exposition in 1937. With the generous assistance of the Rockefeller Foundation, microfilming and reading apparatus was acquired and installed. The Bibliothèque Nationale was instrumental in obtaining the establishment of an official microfilm committee in France, under the chairmanship of the distinguished physicist, Fabry, and comprising several well-known scientists as well as users of archives and libraries. Through this committee technical and other improvements were made and contact with specialists in other countries was maintained. It was chiefly through the example and the influence of the Bibliothèque Nationale that the use of the microfilm has gained ground so rapidly in France.

Third, in an effort to build up systematically the collections of French public libraries, the minister of education intrusted to the Bibliothèque Nationale the management of a considerable

sum of money to be used for the purchase of books for these libraries. For this purpose specially selected lists recommending the best books in each field were prepared by the Bibliothèque Nationale and additions to the various libraries were made from these lists.

A similar scheme was worked out in 1936 with a view to distributing representative French books abroad, in both the major foreign libraries and French libraries abroad. The Bibliothèque Nationale was called upon by the Ministry of Foreign Affairs to undertake the bibliographical part of the plan and prepare lists of suitable books.

Finally, French activity in the field of "documentation" or information service as distinct from library service had been characterized by much duplication of effort and extreme dispersion, brought about by a total lack of co-ordination. A first attempt to improve the situation was made by federating a certain number of information centers under the name of Union Française des Organismes de Documentation. However, efficient co-operation and a co-ordinated effort toward practical solutions were not achieved until after the Paris Exposition and the International Documentation Conference in 1937. The outcome of this was the establishment of an official French committee of documentation under the chairmanship of the administrator-general of the Bibliothèque Nationale. This committee took an active part in the subsequent two International Documentation Conferences, at Oxford in 1938 and Zurich in 1939. The committee began preparation of a *Guide Français de la documentation*, a sort of encyclopedic handbook for the research worker, combining the best features of Minerva, Tassy-Léris, Besterman, and the ASLIB directory, and a special course of training for information service was being organized by the committee in 1939 and 1940.

THE BIBLIOTHEQUE NATIONALE AND THE WAR

When war broke out in September, 1939, many of the activities just described were slowed down; others, following the call to the colors of many officials, had to be interrupted altogether. The remaining librarians not only carried on but cheerfully ac-

cepted new responsibilities. Among other things, a special effort was made to constitute a war collection which was to be as complete as possible. This demanded unceasing vigilance and constantly renewed efforts, since much of the war material was of a fugitive nature.

The weightiest problem, however, was the adequate protection of invaluable collections against the manifold hazards of total warfare. During several years preceding the war a systematic study had been made of the problems involved in case of sudden hostilities. The master-plan was worked out in all its details at the time of the September crisis of 1938. By that time all rare and valuable items had been listed. Special cases, each with its number and destination clearly marked, were held in readiness for an emergency, while storage places in the provinces had been assigned to each group of material. Thus, when the emergency actually arose toward the end of August, 1939, the plan for evacuation was carried out in perfect order and according to schedule. Simultaneously, storage space had been prepared in the basement and the cellars for the mass of books and documents remaining in Paris. These recently completed reinforced cellars were also put into use as air-raid shelters for the staff and the readers.

In accordance with the government's instructions for "passive defense" certain measures were taken, such as limiting the number of readers to the number for which accommodation in the shelters was available. The hours of opening had to be reduced on account of the blackout, since it was impossible to achieve effective camouflage of light in the main reading room with its huge glass dome. Finally, a microfilm was made of the partially completed music catalog on cards, of which there was only one copy. The original was stored outside Paris, while the microfilm reproduction was to be used in the *Bibliothèque Nationale*.¹

¹ M. Julien Cain was dismissed from his post by a decree of the Vichy government dated July 23, 1940. His house in Louveciennes is occupied by the Germans. His apartment in Paris was searched several times by the Gestapo. Since M. Cain is a member of the Jewish race, all professional activity is denied him by virtue of the Nazi-inspired anti-Semitic legislation of Vichy. The data for the above report were furnished by M. Cain at the time the author left Paris in December, 1940. Shortly after, he was arrested by the Germans and, according to latest reports, has been deported to a concentration camp in eastern Europe.

RECLASSIFICATION AND RECATALOGING IN COLLEGE AND UNIVERSITY LIBRARIES REASONS AND EVALUATION¹

MAURICE F. TAUBER

MANY chief administrators, catalogers, and classifiers have been willing to reclassify and recatalog the collections of their libraries, even though they may be familiar with the confusion that frequently attends such processes. Two questions naturally arise: (1) What is behind the apparent readiness of library administrators to undertake the additional burdens of reorganization and activity which are introduced by reclassification and recataloging? (2) What results are actually attained by reorganization of classifications and catalogs?

One might answer the first question simply. It is evident from the literature that many college and university librarians were building up an attitude of dissatisfaction toward all classifications for collections of scholarly books until the Library of Congress system appeared. The subsequent adoption by a group of college and university librarians of the classification schedules of the national library, therefore, was putting into practice the belief of some librarians that reclassification and recataloging of their collections were positive means of improving their service to students and faculty members. The librarian of Catholic University in his report of 1938 summarized the typical point of view toward the values derived from systematic classification and cataloging. "Our needs are many," he wrote, "but the need for recataloging and reclassifying the present stock [some 272,000 volumes] still remains the most pressing,

¹ This is the second of two articles which comprise the essential portion of a dissertation, "Reclassification and recataloging in college and university libraries" (unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, Graduate Library School, University of Chicago, 1941). The first paper, discussing historical aspects, appeared in the *Library quarterly*, XII (1942), 706-24.

both from the point of view of giving service with our present holdings and practicing economies for the future."²

Although Kelley, in discussing the subject approach to books, noted that librarians as a rule have assumed that "a systematic arrangement of books by subject-matter, even though admittedly poor and out of date, is to be clung to and preferred to any other kind of arrangement,"³ there is evidence in the reports of librarians that reconciliation to a "poor and out of date" classification is based largely on financial considerations. However, some other librarians, who would consider reclassification as a progressive activity, finding that their libraries have "outmoded"⁴ classifications or that their cataloging methods are so inconsistent as to interfere with service to the users, have concluded that they must change in order to permit functioning in line with the educational aims of the libraries. The economies which are assumed to accrue from the use of a centralized system of classification and cataloging are not to be underestimated as a reason for change. Despite expected and usually realized advantages from reclassification and recataloging, it is to be recognized that these processes are not cure-alls for a library's ills—though they may release both time and funds for the correction of other faults of administration. The future plans of the library and of the institution with which the library is associated, therefore, have a direct relationship to this matter of technical reorganization.

I. REASONS FOR RECLASSIFICATION

Usually, then, the librarian proceeds to introduce reclassification and recataloging because he assumes they will increase

² Catholic University, Washington, D.C., *Report of the rector, 1937-38*, p. 75.

³ Grace O. Kelley, *The classification of books* (New York: Wilson, 1937), p. 61.

⁴ "Outmoded" here is used in the sense of being inadequate in meeting the needs of a rapidly growing collection. In other words, the classification is deficient in some property, such as completeness, inclusiveness, distinctive terms, etc. It is, of course, possible to argue that sections of the L.C. classification are also outmoded. One needs to refer only to certain geographical sections of Class H to observe how wars, for example, disturb arrangements of books. Few libraries have attempted to keep abreast of such changes.

the educational services of the library and/or reduce the costs of technical processes. To clarify further the question of why libraries are reclassified, the specific motives or reasons for reclassification as offered by librarians in a group of sixty college and university libraries in the United States and Canada⁵ which have changed or are changing to the L.C. classification may be analyzed. These reasons for reclassification appear to divide conveniently into three categories: (1) those which concern the classification that is being discarded; (2) those which have developed either out of the observed effects of the classification upon the users or out of the expressed attitudes of the users themselves; and (3) those which are associated with the administration of the technical processes.

It will be noted that these categories are not discrete; they overlap considerably and are all related. In addition, the history and growth of the individual library and of its collections, as well as the development of the institution of which the library is a part, should be considered in relation to the reasons that have been advanced. If it is kept in mind, therefore, that the reasons for reclassification are treated as separate concepts only as a matter of convenience, the more important of them may be discussed in descending order of frequency of mention by the librarians included in the study.⁶

⁵ For a list of these libraries, see Tauber, "Reclassification and recataloging in college and university libraries" (unpublished Ph.D. dissertation, Graduate Library School, University of Chicago, 1941), pp. 351-53. The data treated in this paper were secured primarily by a check-list questionnaire. An analysis of available annual and special reports and visits to a representative group of libraries served to supplement the data obtained through the check lists. Copies of the check list may be obtained by addressing the writer, University of Chicago Libraries, Chicago, Illinois.

⁶ In addition to the reasons recorded, there are several others which a number of librarians regarded as "trivial." The fundamental consideration in this respect is that while a reason may be trivial from the point of view of theory, actually it may be a deciding factor in the mind of the librarian. Three of these reasons, for example, were as follows: (1) reclassification was instituted primarily because a member of the staff, usually the librarian or head cataloger, came from a library which had used the L.C. system; (2) reclassification seemed wise because other libraries were adopting the L.C. schedules; and (3) reclassification was introduced because discussions in journals and conferences praised the L.C. system as a means of arranging scholarly book collections. It is apparent that whether a reason is trivial or not depends upon whether a theorist or a practicing librarian is defining it.

REASONS RELATED TO CLASSIFICATIONS IN USE

The distribution of the discarded classifications for the sixty libraries represented in the study was as follows: Dewey, 37; local scheme, 5; modified Dewey, 3; Cornell (Harris), 3; Rowell, 2; Cutter, 2 (1 modified); and the following 1 each—Harvard, Poole, Richardson, British Museum, anonymous continental, fixed numbers, accession numbers, and rough subject arrangement. The sixty librarians as a group advanced fifteen reasons for discarding these classifications and replacing them with the L.C. system. These reasons may be listed as follows:

1. Classes were too broad
2. Classes were lacking (e.g., psychology, physics, history, etc.)
3. Classification was not as well suited as the L.C. system for meeting changes in educational policy (e.g., open access to all students)
4. Not modern in content or terminology
5. Not revised frequently enough
6. Not revised fully enough
7. Classes were poorly balanced
8. Classes were not in logical order
9. Local conditions prevented expansion of old classification
10. Special class needed reorganization
11. Not suited for special collections (science, theology, business)
12. Stressed country instead of subject groupings
13. Collection only partially classified by subject groupings
14. Special departments (e.g., medicine) preferred L.C. schedules
15. Had used abridged form of a classification which could not be expanded

It may be noted that a number of these reasons are the opposites of accepted attributes of a satisfactory system as described by classification theorists. Practically, of course, one might define a satisfactory classification as one which serves the purposes of the library using it. For even if a classification were constructed on a correct theoretical basis, experience has demonstrated that because of unavoidable limitations the theory may not be carried out in the practical arrangement of books on the shelves. This will be evident in the discussion of the more important individual reasons.

Classes too broad.—Twenty-eight librarians, fifteen of them in libraries using the Dewey classification, indicated that the classes in the systems in use were too broad. The Richardson classification, while having sufficient classes, apparently was not

detailed enough. Around this point of "broad" versus "close" classification much discussion has occurred among theorists of classification as well as among practicing librarians. There has been no agreement as to where close classification begins and broad classification ends. The various local classifications, devised by librarians, professors of special subjects, and classifiers with a limited knowledge of many subjects, were all criticized as being too broad.

Classes lacking.—Twenty-six librarians found that in the classifications they had been using certain classes were lacking, wholly or in part. In fourteen cases the Dewey classification was the object of criticism. This is not surprising, if only because a large proportion of the libraries had used Dewey. Based upon a theoretical classification of knowledge current at a certain period, the Dewey system, perforce, could not provide places for new ideas or new relationships of ideas without considerable manipulation. This has been true despite the fact that fourteen editions of the Dewey classification have appeared. New subjects are constantly being added to the fund of knowledge, and because the Dewey classification has not made adequate provision for growth in many subjects (such as psychology, education, sociology, and various divisions of the biological and physical sciences), or for showing current relationships between subjects, librarians have considered the classification inadequate for handling large, scholarly collections. If one considers the size of the institutions discarding the Dewey classification because of the absence of classes, there is some cause for reflection concerning the importance of this reason as it stands alone. The large number of libraries of 100,000 or more volumes which are still classed by Dewey indicate that makeshift solutions may be found for the problems which develop because classes are lacking. The Harvard, Richardson, modified Cutter, and rough subject classifications were the only systems for which no librarians advanced the reason "classes lacking."

No provision made for modern thought.—In fifteen libraries using Dewey and in eight others distributed among six of the other classifications it was found that prior to reclassification

constant manipulation, revision, and adjustment were necessary in order to provide suitable places for the intercalation of new subjects included in the many volumes coming into the libraries. Except for the Dewey classification, not one of the systems used was kept up to date by a single responsible agency. The Cutter classification, still in use in a number of large libraries today, has been revised by individual librarians. At the University of Wisconsin Library, for example, it has been found necessary to expand and adapt sections of the Cutter system in order to provide for new subjects. As an illustration, the class F (history) "has required large insertions and expansions to keep abreast of the times, such as full schemes for the European war, and, in some cases, for countries where necessitated by material or use."⁷ On the other hand, at George Washington University it was found that repeated manipulation of the Cutter classification was unsatisfactory because of the expense and the questionable results. Libraries using the Dewey schedules have found it desirable to modify the original classification considerably in order to provide for the growth of new subjects or to show new relationships of older subjects. So many changes have been made in some cases that Dewey class numbers on L.C. cards generally cannot be applied.

A conclusion may be drawn from the experiences of the libraries included in the study. The older the classification and the further it departs from standard systems (Dewey, Cutter, or even Rowell and Harris), the greater is the need for additions, alterations, and adaptations to meet the problems raised by increasing numbers of publications in dynamic fields of knowledge. Evidence indicates that the task of changing an antiquated system with any consistency is extremely difficult and is seldom satisfactory to librarians or to some faculty members. Students seldom question the placement of books.

Nonsuitability of classification for scholarly collection.—Seventeen librarians volunteered the reason that the L.C. classification was more suitable for scholarly collections than the systems in use. Fourteen of these were in libraries using Dewey and

⁷ Eliza Lamb, "Expansive classification in use," *Library quarterly*, IV (1934), 265.

three in libraries using local classifications. There is some reason to conclude, on the basis of other data collected, that users would substantiate the generalization drawn by librarians that the L.C. system is more adaptable to the collections than were the classifications it supplanted.

Not revised frequently enough.—To some extent, infrequent revision, as well as incomplete revision, is but a reflection of other reasons for discarding a classification. If a system is not detailed enough, has classes lacking, is poorly balanced, and is illogical, it stands to reason that alterations and revisions are but makeshifts. Certainly the Dewey classification has been revised many times; in only three instances has there been a lapse of more than five years between editions.

Further, it should be noted that complete revisions of the L.C. schedules have been infrequent, although current changes are made in the assignment of class numbers. Frequency of revision does not in itself appear to be a serious reason for reclassification. Rather, it seems that basic inadequacies prevent successful corrections and alterations.

System not revised fully enough.—There is a close relation between incomplete revision and infrequent revision as reasons for reclassification. Of the fifteen librarians who advanced these reasons, eleven marked the two together. Full revision, of course, is hardly possible in a classification which does not contain basic provisions for the addition of new subjects. Such classifications as those of Cutter, Richardson, Rowell, and Harris, each the product of a single individual, have thus fallen into disrepute among college and university librarians because of their incomplete character. Although the Dewey classification is revised, difficulties are presented because of the impossibility of intercalating numbers except by lengthening them to a point of cumbersomeness. More important than this, however, is the arduousness of interpolating subjects in places which would be satisfactory to librarians and users alike.

Classes poorly balanced.—"Balance," as the term is used in connection with classification, may be defined as uniform and equal treatment of all classes included in the system. This

means that one subject or class should not be overemphasized by close classification—unless it serves the purpose of the library—while other subjects or classes for which there is available a like amount of materials as represented by book titles are treated broadly. Thus, systems devised a half-century ago gave primary attention to literature and theology, and such fields as technology, agriculture, medicine, and other sciences, as well as the various social sciences, were not well developed—in many cases, not provided for. The Dewey classification, based upon a single individual's conception of the division of knowledge current at a certain period, likewise placed inadequate stress upon such subjects as education, sociology, psychology, physics, chemistry, and other subjects destined to grow extensively and intensively. It is worth noting that the Rowell and Cutter classifications were discarded by librarians not because they were poorly balanced so far as classes were concerned, but because they were not revised frequently or fully enough.

Classes not logical.—Twelve librarians using the Dewey system and one librarian using the Harris classification gave as a reason for reclassification "the illogical arrangement of the classes." Dewey's principle in building his classification was the depiction of the history of man's development in the order of the classes. The order was presumed to result in a logical arrangement of the materials that fell into the nine main classes. Bliss, however, has criticized Dewey's order as practical, arbitrary, and purposive, rather than logical, natural, and scientific. This led Bliss to define logical order as "an attempt to conform fundamentally to the organizations of knowledge established in the scientific and educational consensus."⁸ Bliss offers no approach, however, to reconcile the disagreements of scientists and educators.

Thus, the word "logical" refers, first, to the relations between the several classes and, second, to the internal arrangement

⁸ Henry E. Bliss, *The organization of knowledge in libraries* (2d ed.; New York: Wilson, 1939), p. 36. Bliss's opinion regarding the value of the L.C. classification is given in chap. xii.

within each class. The various local classifications used prior to the adoption of the L.C. schedules did not usually follow any order which modern theorists would call logical. It is apparent that in libraries having arrangements by accession or fixed numbers, or by rough subjects, no effort was made to insert in them logic, balance, or any other property associated with systematic classification.

Moreover, the examination of the actual placement of materials in the stacks of libraries reveals that logical order, in so far as classes are concerned, does not hold in practice. Except in libraries in which the collections are small and occupy a single stack level, there is no attempt to keep the books in the order of the classes, as, for example, A-B-C to Z in the L.C. system or 000-999 in the Dewey. The internal administration of the circulation department is more important than the placement of classes in so-called logical order with one another. It is well known that investigators of problems in the social sciences use materials in many subject fields. The theory of logical order therefore fails in practice in large libraries which consist of a widely distributed system of stack tiers in the main building and of many departmental, professional-school, seminar, and laboratory collections. Indeed, it may be more profitable to use a shelf list well provided with guide cards than the stacks to learn of the relationships between groups of books as described by a classification.

Other reasons.—Several other reasons, already listed, refer to conditions which were primarily local in nature. In cases in which local expansions proved unsatisfactory, for example, the matter of individual librarians' preferences should not be overlooked. Procedures begun by one librarian are often rejected by his successor.

REASONS RELATED TO USERS

While the inadequacies and inefficiencies of an antiquated classification and inconsistent cataloging should be important factors in any decision to make the large-scale changes involved in reclassification and recataloging projects, it seems that the

ultimate effects of the classification and cataloging upon the users should be the primary foci for consideration. The question, therefore, of whether or not students were active in suggesting reclassification and recataloging merits more than passing attention.

Implications of the effects upon reclassification of open shelves, which in themselves may result from changes in educational methods as well as from expanded privileges given increased numbers of graduate students, should be noted. In every institution in which changes in educational policy occurred, open access to both students and faculty members was permitted. Any value that a classification may have in showing more distinctly than under the previous arrangement currently accepted relationships between branches of knowledge is lost if free access to the shelves is not permitted.

Faculty members.—In twenty-eight institutions, including twenty classified by Dewey, faculty members were active in recommending a change to the L.C. system. This represents 47 per cent of the total number of libraries reclassifying. More important than this, however, is the fact that there is a close relation between faculty interest in classification and specific criticisms of the systems that were discarded. There is no evidence regarding the quantity of criticisms or the proportion of the critics to the total number of faculty members.

Graduate students.—The data show that in six libraries graduate students were active in suggesting change of classification. Further inquiry revealed that this activity in the libraries classified by the Dewey system consisted primarily of complaints arising from the structure of the classification—e.g., the separation of an author's works by form. In libraries not using the Dewey system, criticisms of the whole classifications were made. As in the case of the faculty, there are no data regarding quantity of criticisms or the proportion of student critics to the total number of users.

Uniformity for scholarship.—A reason for reclassification that is sometimes given is the desire to establish uniformity in the arrangement of books in all academic libraries. This envisages

an ideal situation which has not played a significant role in the motives for reclassification. Theoretically, uniformity in classification would enable transfer students, graduate students, faculty members, and other scholars to use many libraries more effectively than they do at the present time. Actually, the Dewey classification comes nearer to being a national classification than does the L.C. system.

REASONS RELATED TO LIBRARY ADMINISTRATION

Considerably more expression is found in the group of reasons relating to library administration. This group of reasons, supplied by thirty-five libraries, refers to the organization, economy, and efficiency of the technical processes for the future, and special factors of administration currently present. These reasons are as follows:

1. Opportunity to correct errors of cataloging and classification (need for recataloging)
2. L.C. classification more effective
3. Adopted use of L.C. cards
4. Adopted use of L.C. subject headings and cataloging procedures
5. Cheaper to use L.C. classification
6. Co-operation with other libraries
7. Consolidation with larger collections
8. Opportunity to use centralized classification and cataloging for several units of a library
9. Staff difficulty in interpolation: high costs of technical processes
10. Circulation department costs for locating and shelving books too high

Opportunity to correct errors of cataloging and classification.—Thirty-one libraries listed recataloging as a major motive for reclassification. There have been some cases in which recataloging has been used as a pretext for reclassification, rather than as a reason. Even though a collection is badly cataloged, there should be some question of the need for reclassification if the system in use is consistent and serves the purpose of the library. On the other hand, if the catalog is in bad condition, contains numerous errors of fact and form, and is generally misleading, recataloging is probably necessary for effective service. If the library has plans for the future which include considerable growth of the collections, the librarian should regard re-

cataloging as an opportunity for a complete reclassification as well. Although more than thirty-one libraries required some recataloging during reclassification, it was not always a primary reason.

L.C. classification more effective.—It has been stated that, in comparison with other systems, the L.C. classification groups materials in a manner which is more satisfactory to the users having access to the stacks, thus minimizing staff attention. Moreover, the circulation department has to expend less effort in locating and shelving books. Finally, the classifiers have little difficulty in interpolating large numbers of titles in the various classes. Although more than one-half of the librarians indicated that the L.C. system is more effective than the system displaced, the evaluations are subjective, rather than based on efficiency in use, speed in service, or economy in the technical processes. There is some reason to believe, in the absence of objective data, that the judgments of librarians are more nearly right than wrong.

Adopted use of L.C. printed cards, subject headings, and cataloging procedures.—The adoption of the use of both L.C. printed cards and subject headings should be regarded as secondary reasons for introducing reclassification. The presence of L.C. classification numbers on the printed cards has undoubtedly been an important factor in influencing librarians to consider the benefits of centralized classification.

No library would need to concern itself with a reclassification program merely because an inconsistent or poorly developed list of subject headings had been used. Yet recataloging involves the changing of subject entries. Among the libraries studied there is considerable evidence that the American Library Association, Sears, and local lists of headings have been unsatisfactory. In these libraries recataloging assumed more importance than reclassification. As one librarian stated: "Our subject headings were so inconsistent that complete recataloging was necessary. It seemed that reclassification by the L.C. system, using the classification, printed cards, subject headings,

and cataloging procedures would clear up difficulties and build an efficient framework for the future."

Cheaper to use the L.C. classification.—Twenty-two librarians indicated that it was cheaper to use the L.C. classification services than to do their own classifying of titles. While it is true that Dewey numbers have been placed on printed cards since 1930, it has been found that a large number of libraries have been unable to use the assignments without considerable modification. In this sense Dewey numbers are only suggestive. For a library which has established a definite plan in regard to the use of the L.C. classification, modification of L.C. assignments of class numbers should be rare.

No special study has been made of the difference in costs of classifying by the Dewey and by the L.C. classification. On the basis of speculation alone, it would seem that the use of centralized classification as furnished by the Library of Congress would be cheaper than each library's assigning its own locations.

Other reasons relating to library administration.—Such reasons as co-operation with affiliated or independent libraries, consolidation with larger libraries, and centralization of the technical processes of the units of a library are important and generally credible motives for reclassification. However, because of the complex managerial and administrative problems in reclassification and recataloging,⁹ it appears that the librarian should gather objective data regarding services and costs before introducing technical reorganization based on these reasons.

SUMMARY OF REASONS

Up to this point, three categories of reasons for reclassification and recataloging have been discussed. These reasons relate to (1) the classifications discarded and the nature of existing catalogs, (2) the users, and (3) library administration. The study indicates that certain of the commonly accepted reasons

⁹ For a further discussion of these problems, see Maurice F. Tauber, "Reclassification and recataloging of materials in college and university libraries," in W. M. Randall (ed.), *The acquisition and cataloging of books* (Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1940), pp. 202-11.

for reclassification and recataloging are not particularly valid for the purpose of instituting the processes in college and university libraries. To support this contention one need only cite the common failure on the part of librarians to consider the uses made of classifications and catalogs prior to technical reorganization. This does not mean that in no case were the reasons for reorganization of sufficient importance to warrant undertaking the project.

Although institutional differences make it hazardous to state which particular reasons or combinations of them are of sufficient importance for reclassification, the evidence indicates that some of the reasons concerned with the discarded classifications should be subject to the skepticism of critical students. Quantitatively, the principal reasons relating to the discarded classifications refer to the lack of both completeness and inclusiveness, the illogical order of the classes, and limitations in the content and terminology of the systems from the standpoint of modernity. In libraries arranged by local classifications, lack of classes and broadness of classes were the predominant reasons. Despite the efforts of the editors of the Dewey system to keep it modern, large libraries have found it basically inferior to the L.C. classification.

It is in the set of reasons which relate to library administration that one senses that librarians are certain of their ground. Yet even in this respect the lack of objective study on the part of librarians has produced conditions which do not reflect results in efficiency or economy.

Since no objective study was made of the effectiveness of the discarded classifications, any statement regarding satisfactory arrangement as a reason for change must be based upon the subjective observations of librarians. There is some basis for noting, however, that in most libraries reclassification grouped the materials in a manner that was more satisfactory than that which formerly prevailed. Evidence secured from a faculty survey, discussed in the following paragraphs, supports this statement.

II. FACULTY ATTITUDES CONCERNING CLASSIFICATION

With all due regard to the fact that the classification per se and library administration are important and are assumed to have direct effects upon the convenience in use of books, the actual use of books through classification and the catalog should be the predominant factor in motivating technical reorganization. This may be stated in the form of a question: Does technical reorganization result in greater facility in use of materials by faculty members, students, and library staff members?

To get beyond the casual observations of librarians, an investigation was made to test one of the important reasons for reclassification, namely, that faculty members were interested in having the book collections arranged by a system that was more convenient to scholars than the one in use. To evaluate the results of technical reorganization, a study (based on data secured through a questionnaire and consultations) was made of the attitudes of 594 faculty members in two universities, hereafter referred to as Institution A and Institution B. The 266 faculty members responding represented 45 per cent of the total faculties of the two institutions, the percentage being approximately the same for faculty members in each of the main subject divisions—social sciences, sciences, and humanities and fine arts.

Nine questions which were asked of the faculty members were intended to elicit information on the following points: (1) the extent to which faculty members used the stacks (with the implication that the values of classification are utilized), (2) the extent to which faculty members secured for themselves the books they needed from the library stacks, (3) the frequency of use of the card catalog for locating materials, (4) the attitudes of members of the faculty toward the L.C. classification as a satisfactory arrangement of the materials in their special subject fields and (5) in other fields, (6) the extent of acquaintance of faculty members with classifications other than that of the Library of Congress, (7) the observations of faculty members on problems raised by reclassification, (8) the attitudes of fac-

ulty members toward partial reclassification, and (9) the suitability of using other systems of classification to arrange materials in special subject fields. A tenth question asked for reasons for the approval or disapproval of the L.C. system.

In an earlier paper, attention was called to this method of evaluating the effectiveness of a classification.¹⁰ Objections to the use of such a method are concerned (1) with the lack of qualifications of faculty members to estimate the qualities of a classification and (2) with the failure on the part of faculty members to recognize that systematic classification arranges books effectively.

The responses of the sampling of 266 faculty members representing 48 different academic fields give some basis for tentative conclusions regarding classifications and catalogs and faculty uses of them. The responses of the 178 faculty members in Institution A and 88 in Institution B indicated that in the two universities the approach of the instructional staffs toward classifications and catalogs followed similar patterns. At least four general facts are striking enough to note: (1) Faculty members as a group are not particularly concerned with classification, which is considered to be primarily a locating device. (2) Faculty members as a group are no longer strongly interested in classification, because they consider librarians technically qualified to handle such matters. (3) Faculty members who have access to the shelves and who take advantage of this access generally locate the section in which they are particularly interested and pay little attention to other sections. Scientists who have access to departmental libraries seldom use general libraries, but do use departmental libraries of a related nature. (4) There is little expression of the once prevalent idea that classification in academic libraries should be built around courses of instruction or departments of teaching.

The findings in respect to the specific nine questions which were asked of the faculty members may be summarized as follows:

¹⁰ *Ibid.*, pp. 214-18.

1. In the amount of use of the stacks, one significant element to note is the closeness of the percentages in the various frequencies of use by the faculty members of the two institutions. In Institution A, 68 per cent of the faculty responding used the stacks "weekly or oftener"; in Institution B, 61 per cent. The stacks are used more intensively by 20 to 30 per cent of the faculty than they are extensively by the whole faculty. Approximately 40 per cent of the total faculties in the two universities use the stacks at some time during the year.

2. The majority of the faculty members who use the stacks generally secure from the shelves the books they need, rather than have loan assistants search for them (66 per cent in Institution A and 63 per cent in Institution B).

3. Approximately three-fourths of the total number of faculty members responding use the card catalogs in either the departmental or the general library. The use in departmental libraries is primarily by individuals who are from other departments or who are new to the staff, or by those who are seeking the locations of new titles. The general card catalog is used mostly by individuals who are searching for entries of new acquisitions or for titles outside their departmental interests. Forty-one per cent always consulted the card catalog when looking for specific materials. Two per cent never consulted it, depending upon the classification to locate materials. These figures are open to some question, however, because of the large percentage (20 per cent) who did not give information on this point.

4. Unfavorable opinion in regard to the L.C. classification as a system for arranging materials ranged from 11 per cent in Institution A to 24 per cent in B. There is evidence in the answers from individuals in B that during reclassification there is likely to be more antagonism than after the project is completed. The opinions strongly suggest that the Library of Congress classification is suitable for most of the subject fields contained in academic book collections.

5. The application of the Library of Congress classification to subject fields outside individuals' subject interests has been satisfactory to most of the faculty members who expressed their opinions. The major complaints regarding other fields of interest came from faculty members in the social sciences and the humanities.

6. Except for the Dewey classification, which is known to practically everyone who has used libraries, faculty knowledge of classifications other than that of the Library of Congress scatters widely among twenty-one systems. This fact suggests that the librarian seek one system and apply it consistently.

7. The effects of reclassification perhaps may best be observed after the project has been completed. Similarly, opinions regarding the value of the project may best be stated after users have had an opportunity to observe the new arrangement and contrast it with the previous situation. The evidence indicates that those individuals who were on the teaching staff before reclassification in Institution A describe the previous condition as chaotic; the evidence from the opinions expressed by faculty members in Institution B does not give as clear-cut a picture.

8. The weight of faculty opinion is against partial reclassification. The

question of partial reclassification, however, is more important than it seems on the surface. There has not been sufficient consideration of the possibility of segregating materials on the basis of use.

9. The responses to the problematical point of rearranging library materials by another system if the opportunity were granted revealed that only in those cases in which individuals were dissatisfied with the L.C. system were there expressions of affirmative approval of a further reclassification. In effect, the great majority of faculty members were against such action.

Three conclusions may be drawn from the data gathered in the survey of faculty attitudes:

1. As a group, faculty members are almost surprisingly indifferent about classification. There are numerous exceptions to this generalization, but the fact remains that they are definitely *exceptions*. This basic fact should give pause to the librarian who believes that reclassification is going to effect great reforms or changes. Doubtless faculty members are assisted by a good classification system, but the assistance seems to be unrecognized or received subconsciously in a very considerable degree.

2. The Library of Congress classification withstands the assault of faculty critics very well. Criticism is diffused for the most part; only in a few weak spots, such as in the cases of psychology, geography, and theology, does there appear to be a weakness of the system.

3. As a corollary to both the preceding points, it seems fair to suggest that, in general, juggling with the L.C. system will not produce useful results. In most cases, libraries will probably be well advised to follow L.C. classification pretty literally. Changes are expensive and there is little evidence to show that they result in significant improvements over Library of Congress practice.

III. CONCLUSION

To show the theoretical and logical superiority of one classification system over another is relatively easy. Similarly, it is obvious that a library completely and accurately classified and cataloged is more satisfactory to the average user than its opposite. If these two considerations were the only ones, then the question of whether to reclassify and recatalog might readily be

answered in the affirmative. There are, however, two other considerations which are no less important; and perhaps from an administrative standpoint they may be even more so.

One of these is the cost involved in extensive reclassification and recataloging and the other is the actual difference they make to the users. Certainly we know that the cost is great. Therefore, before over-all changes are undertaken specific consideration should be given to the potential users of the classification and the catalog. Here is where the survey of the faculty and of other users becomes important. Does the inferiority of the classification system or the catalog hamper the faculty members, students, and library staff in their use of materials—or, rather, does it hamper them so greatly that reclassification and recataloging are actually the best ways out?

The burden of proof rests upon the librarian to show that the outmoded classification and the antiquated catalog interfere with the use of library materials or increase the cost of preparing them for use. It is not possible to answer definitively the question of whether a particular library should reclassify or recatalog. If its present status is such as to interfere greatly with the proper functioning of the library in its service to scholarship, then a change is indicated; otherwise, changes should be made with considerable caution. Only as greatly improved service can be seen to result from reorganization may the tremendous costs involved be justified.

THE CONTRIBUTORS TO THIS ISSUE

ARUNDELL J. K. ESDAILE: for biographical information see the *Library quarterly*, II (1932), 148. Mr. Esdaile retired as secretary of the British Museum in April, 1940.

JOSÉ MEYER was born in 1895 in New York City. She was graduated from the American Library Association Paris Library School in 1925. Following her graduation she was librarian of the Reference Service on International Affairs in Paris until 1929, when she joined the Library of Congress as cataloger under Charles Martel. From 1935 until her return to this country in January, 1941, she was European representative of the Library of Congress, stationed in Paris, and was an official delegate to the Fourteenth and Fifteenth International Documentation Conferences in Oxford and Zurich, respectively. After the German occupation Miss Meyer remained in Paris for six months, then returned to the United States with the war material she had collected for the Library of Congress. At present she is on leave of absence from the Catalog Department of the Library of Congress for the purpose of acting as reference librarian for the Inter-Allied Information Center in New York.

Miss Meyer compiled an outline bibliography, *Official publications of European countries*, in 1926 and has contributed to various professional periodicals in France and the United States.

JOHN DALE RUSSELL was born at Bloomington, Indiana, November 8, 1895. He has been at the University of Chicago since 1931 (associate professor of education, 1931-38; professor of education, 1938—; secretary of the Department of Education, 1934—; dean of students and associate dean of the Division of Social Sciences, 1939—). For additional biographical information, see the *Library quarterly*, I (1931), 90.

MAURICE F. TAUBER: for biographical information see the *Library quarterly*, IX (1939), 512, and XII (1942), 767.

THE COVER DESIGN

SAMUEL APIARIUS was the son of Matthias Apiarius, the first printer of Bern. Upon the death of his father, about 1554, Samuel succeeded to the printing office. Matthias had been famous as a printer of music and his son endeavored to follow in his footsteps. But Samuel Apiarius, unfortunately, was somewhat shiftless. He ran into debt and, worst of all, he offended the authorities by printing two songs which libeled, either by design or by unfortunate error, influential citizens of the city of Lucerne. On the protest of the Council of Lucerne, the Council of Bern in 1564 banished him for ten years.

Leaving his shop to his brother, Siegfried, Samuel Apiarius went to Solothurn, where he introduced the art of printing. In 1566 he moved to Basel. Here he remained even after his term of banishment from Bern had expired, printing for publishers and for the city officials and still issuing the small books of songs of which he was fond. A careless slip again caused him trouble. He copied incorrectly the arms of St. Gall, and in 1570 the Council of that city made a formal protest. Apiarius was never an astute businessman. On the other hand, he seems to have been able to win friends. In 1575, when he was sued by a creditor from Bern, not only did his Basel friends help him to satisfy the debt, but the City Council also came to his rescue. Apiarius married three times. He died at Basel in 1590.

Samuel Apiarius used the printer's marks of his father. Matthias Apiarius first used a mark which simply represented a bear (derived from the arms of Bern) robbing a beehive (a reference to his own name). But later his mark evidently suggested to him the well-known analogy between honey and the Word of God, and this symbolism he carried out in the mark reproduced on the cover: A bear robs a beehive in a tree from the branches of which hangs a printer's mallet; the bees swarm about the bear and also about a book on the pages of which are inscribed the divine Tetragrammaton.

EDWIN ELIOTT WILLOUGHBY

FOLGER SHAKESPEARE LIBRARY

REVIEWS

Annual report of the librarian of Congress for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1941. Washington: Government Printing Office, 1942. Pp. 425.

The annual report of the Library of Congress for 1941 is a landmark in the history of its reports and in the history of report-writing. It is planned and presented in a form different from any previous Library of Congress report. Its content is no less different.

Since October 1, 1939, when Archibald MacLeish took office, librarians everywhere (excepting those who were cheering) have been studiously and politely biding their time and waiting to see what would happen to the national library under a relatively unorthodox administration. Everyone knew of the Librarian's Committee and its survey, but no one knew what it said. Everyone knew of important appointments to high positions, but few knew of the results. Repercussions of convulsive movements within the walls of the Library of Congress were heard everywhere, but official statements were few and meager. Now, for the first time, in this annual report, the Library comes out to tell the people what it is doing and what it is trying to do, what its plans are and where they are going.

To understand fully how great a change has been effected, both in action and in reporting, the reader will do well to compare the annual reports of 1939 and 1940 with that of 1941. The 1939 report represents the transition year. It includes the reports of all the divisions in a simple alphabetical arrangement following a very brief introduction by the librarian. Each division report is a self-contained unit and is in no way related to its neighbors, either editorially or administratively. This report was actually Mr. Putnam's last, as the Introduction indicates. The 1940 report took the first long step in reporting action and thought at the Library of Congress. Its Introduction (pp. 1-38) should be required reading for every library administrator and must be read to appreciate the development of the new administration. In the Introduction Mr. MacLeish himself codifies for the first time in forty years of Library of Congress history a methodical statement of objectives of the Library of Congress under two headings: "Maintenance of the collections" and "Service of the collections." This policy now is one measuring-stick of the Library's progress. One should also notice the physical makeup of the 1940 report, for it marks an intermediate stage between the formless arrangement of 1939 and the completely revised form of 1941. In the 1940 report one finds the librarian's Introduction, above described, followed by the textual reports of the various divisions, arranged for the first time in the three large departments—Reference, Processing, and Administrative. Within the departments one finds

again an alphabetical rather than a functional arrangement. In addition, this report gathers in a long supplement all the statistical, bibliographical, tabular, and legal addenda, again arranged in alphabetical order by divisions. It is obvious here that the librarian had two desires: first, he wanted a published statement of policy upon which his administrators could base their decisions and by which they could co-ordinate their efforts, and, second, he wanted to carry his public with him by writing a readable report. In this year he succeeded admirably in what he did himself—the statement of objectives—and failed in what he did not do himself—the preparation of a readable report. Not until 1941 are both of these ideals reached.

As Mr. MacLeish says in his first paragraph of the 1941 report, "an attempt has been made to present the activities of the Library in terms of its principal functions," and "our principal purpose has been to produce a more expressive account of the Library's work and of the lives and activities of its staff." This report comes closer to attaining these goals than any previous attempt. The librarian's Introduction is less than twenty pages long. It records the principal activities, both new and old, within the Library and includes a verbal progress chart of certain phases of the Library's work. It contains an account of the Librarian's Committee recommendations, which have yet to be completed, and is followed by the text of General Order No. 1010, the first report on the status of the recommendations of the Librarian's Committee.

The second unit in this report is the Reference Department, and here one finds the most important innovation of the year. As in the previous year, the division reports are grouped under the three departments of the Library, but now the organization of reporting has gone still further. That is, one does not have simply a group of division reports alphabetically arranged, with each division reporting all phases of its work. Rather, the department report is divided into chapters devoted to functions—e.g., "I. Organization and administration," "II. Service of the collections," etc.—including in each chapter the activities of all divisions. The statistical and bibliographical elements have been reduced to a minimum, and what remains is incorporated directly in the text. Of particular interest to the student of library administration is the first chapter of the Reference Department report. The director of this newly formed department outlines the development of its organization and its present status. The five remaining chapters contain a readable and convincing account of the usual and unusual activities of its twenty-odd divisions. It is at this point that the functional organization breaks down, for within each chapter one finds again the old alphabetical arrangement, taken obviously from a file of reports and not grouped into a logical arrangement dictated by the theme of the chapter. Nonetheless, this section of the report is a definite improvement over past years.

The Processing Department is next represented in the volume, and in relatively few pages. Again the point of departure is the Librarian's Committee, and again the text includes point-by-point descriptions of the problems and the action taken in each case. Each of five divisions is considered in turn, and

a particular effort has been made to codify the place of each in the whole plan. Within each division there is a review of the year's work, plans, and problems, describing one work unit after another. Administrators of processing departments can find here, for the first time, the outline and explanation of the present organization of this enormous department. Immediately following this, but preceding the "Statistical summary" (pp. 229-42), in less than three printed pages, the director of the Processing Department offers his "Objectives." With the librarian's objectives of 1940 as a starting-point, the director proposes and explains two objectives concerned solely with the Library of Congress and two more based on co-operation with other libraries. These statements are of the utmost importance to the library world as a whole; it is through them that one divines in part the role of the Library of Congress in the library world of the future.

Now, when one would expect to find next the last departmental report, that of the Administrative Department, it is a little disconcerting to find that of the Law Library (pp. 243-89). Apparently the Law Library is a law unto itself, and its report is composed of sections quite different from any others. It follows very closely its usual pattern and offers no notable change.

The Administrative Department then follows with a large number of tables and a fairly modest textual report. It reports on finance, personnel, publications, legislation, and all the housekeeping operations. An important section in this report is that of the Personnel Office (pp. 330 ff.), which has been newly organized and is here described in detail.

Last, but not least, is the report of the Copyright Office, which follows its regular pattern and incidentally provides a most blatant blunder with the best of intentions. It is in the recurrent phrase, "the undersigned," which occurs in no other section, that a basic weakness of report-writing is revealed. It is woefully obvious that the *Annual report of the librarian of Congress* is not one report but six. It is the librarian's report, plus the department reports, plus the Law Library report, and plus that of the Copyright Office. This would not be bad in itself if the whole were edited and seen through the press by one competent person. Since this is not the case, the several elements are out of balance, both quantitatively and qualitatively.

There can be no doubt that the present type of report is more readable than any of its predecessors. Subject specialists will regret the loss of unitary reports of the division of their special interest. This lack could be supplied by near-print division reports sent to an established mailing list by each division. It can be remedied in part by a much more detailed index to the report in its new form. It is the reviewer's opinion that this report has gained far more than it has lost. I suppose no one doubted that Mr. MacLeish as a librarian would be vocal, if nothing more. It becomes increasingly evident that he is far more than that.

JERROLD ORNE

Knox College
Galesburg, Illinois

Seventh annual report of the Archivist of the United States for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1941. By the NATIONAL ARCHIVES. (Publication No. 20.) Washington: Government Printing Office, 1942. Pp. vii+95.

As the wheels of Government go around they grind out a ceaseless stream of records, which, like the salt ground from the magic mill in the fairy tale, has become so great in volume that it threatens to engulf everything in its path. The wheels of the Government of the United States have now been turning for more than 150 years, turning at an ever-increasing pace, especially in times of national emergency, and no one has yet found the magic words to control the flow of records or the means to deal satisfactorily with the papers accumulated.

With these discouraging words the Archivist of the United States opens the seventh annual report. His pessimism finds ample justification in the pages that follow. Confronted by a problem which even in normal times was growing to alarming proportions, under the impact of war the Archivist is faced with new demands for extended services, an ever increasing burden of accumulating records, and decreasing resources upon which to rely. Service requests received during the fiscal year 1941 were more than double the combined total of such requests for the two years immediately preceding (p. 10). The total quantity of records accepted during 1941 exceeded by more than one-third that of any previous fiscal period (p. 18). The exigencies of a national emergency (it has been estimated that records occupy from 20 to 30 per cent of the space now used by government agencies in Washington [p. 2]), have necessitated the removal to the Archives Building of many documents that otherwise would have remained in the office of their origin. To these expanded duties was added the new responsibility for safeguarding the most valuable materials against the hazards of war—a task involving the careful preparation of a comprehensive plan, the appraisal of relative values, and, ultimately, actual evacuation to points of maximum protection. Finally, to intensify the critical situation, it is reasonable to assume that the impact of international events upon the national economy will deny to the Archives financial support proportionate to the expansion of its services, while its technical staff will increasingly fall a victim to the ravages of the war agencies and the needs of the combat forces for a steady flow of man-power (pp. 39-44).

Many of these difficulties were born of immediate necessity, but an equal if not greater share is the result of our own unenlightened archival policy. The United States as a people has long been indifferent to the preservation of its official papers. Ours was the last of the great nations of the world to make adequate provision for the protection and administration of its national archives. For years such materials had been stored in cellars, attics, and garages—easy victims of every form of depredation and decay. All too frequently the public has regarded the records of the federal government as musty documents possessing only antiquarian interest, when, in reality, they constitute a fundamental source of information not only for research in the history of the American people but for the effective prosecution of the day-to-day business of government. President Hayes was aware of the need for adequate storage

of such noncurrent material and in 1877 proposed to Congress the erection of a Hall of Records, but his advice went unheeded until 1913, when Congress authorized plans for such a building. However, the intervention of World War I and the eventual involvement of the United States in the conflict precluded further action.

In 1918 Charles E. Munroe, chairman of the Committee on Explosives Investigations of the National Research Council, foreseeing the chaos that would characterize the records of the first World War, urged again the need for proper storage and emphasized particularly the necessity for adequate administration, classification, and indexing to give to the assembled material a maximum of utility. It was, however, not until 1926 that Congress made the initial appropriation for the National Archives and not until 1935 that the present building was completed. Even yet the solution is not entirely a happy one. Structurally, at least, it scarcely represents the consummation of wise and judicious planning. Housed in a Greek temple, an architectural form hardly adequate to the demands of modern archival practice, situated in the midst of Washington's most congested business area, where future expansion is impossible, and built upon land so near the level of the sea that constant pumping is required to prevent inundation of its substructure, the National Archives stands today a monument to the monumental tradition in federal architecture. Less than seven years after its completion the Archivist finds himself pondering the need for an annex, perhaps "the new War Department building . . . across the Potomac River in Arlington, Va. . . . when the emergency is over [p. 5]."

But even when one discounts the mistakes of the past, the fact still remains that we are today accumulating records at an unprecedented and almost terrifying rate. The Archivist has no panacea to offer, but the pages of this report supply ample evidence that he is acutely aware of the magnitude of his task. Quite wisely he has made suggestions that are basically sound: an adequate survey of federal records both within and beyond the confines of the District of Columbia (p. 2); the formulation of a comprehensive plan for the preservation and disposal of noncurrent documents (pp. 2-4); the improvement of present techniques for the reduction of storage costs (pp. 4-5); decentralization through the establishment of branch archival buildings at strategic points throughout the country (p. 6); and the development by the several federal agencies of programs for reducing the quantity of papers accumulated (pp. 6-7).

Time and unrelenting effort will doubtless achieve most of these objectives. The basic problem that most concerns the present reviewer is the task of rejection—and rejection is essential if our archives are not eventually to crash of their own tremendous weight. The present machinery for the disposal of obsolete federal records is unwieldy and cumbersome, to say the least:

In accordance with the Act of August 5, 1939, and earlier legislation, heads of agencies having in their custody noncurrent records believed to have no administrative

value or historical interest to the Federal Government are required to submit to the Archivist lists and samples of such records. If he finds that the records are appropriate for disposal, the Archivist, with the approval of the National Archives Council, reports the fact to Congress, which refers the matter to a joint committee for consideration. If the joint committee agrees with the findings of the Archivist it so reports to Congress and its report, including the lists, is published. The head of the agency having the custody of the records may then dispose of them in accordance with methods specified [p. 15].

Eventually we may find ourselves confronted by the records on the disposal of records on the disposal of previous records. Here is the real focus of the archival problem. In a day when the social historian, intent upon his relentless search for authentic sources, regards even the ubiquitous Sears Roebuck Catalogue as fair game, the decision of what to keep and what to destroy is certainly not easy. But eventually, like it or not, it is a choice that someone will of necessity be compelled to make.

This is Solon Buck's first report as Archivist of the United States. Happily, he is well aware that the future is fraught with such difficult problems. It is to be hoped that an infinite wisdom will guide his course; but there may be many times when he will ponder the opinion of one who, alarmed over the incredible growth of libraries and cemeteries in modern society, suggested, perhaps not entirely facetiously, cremation as the best solution for both.

J. H. SHERA

Washington, D.C.

Bookmaking and kindred amenities. Edited by EARL SCHENCK MIERS and RICHARD ELLIS. New Brunswick, N.J.: Rutgers University Press, 1942. Pp. xiii+167. \$3.50.

This book will provide librarians with a short cut to a lot of things they ought to know. It is a symposium by eleven authors who are forever crossing and recrossing that vague line which, in the world of good books, divides literature from fine printing. If we get better books, both in substance and in format, it will be because of authors like these. Richard Ellis, who entered the field of printing by way of physical chemistry, surveys the familiar story of manifold printing from the scriptorium to the Merrymount Press and concludes with the remark: "We have brought into being the democracy of good book-making." Beatrice Warde, of the Monotype Corporation, eschews the now hackneyed expression "books in wartime" and might have entitled her contribution "books under bombs." She concludes from her experiences in London that "books were never so valued, bookmen never so respected" as in England today. Librarians with an obsession for wearing out books by use and librarians with but a vague notion of the meaning of the word "bookmen" ought to read this. Recently we suggested that it is easier to turn a bookman into a librarian than to try to turn a librarian into a bookman. Carl Rollins, of New Haven, apparently picked his own title and gives us "Gilding the lily:

in the designing of books there's no sin like complacency." All he tries to make clear is that type is meant to be read. "If the page does not possess clarity, it is a failure, and clarity is an aesthetic value." (Can one really learn of aesthetics by taking "courses"?) Bennett Cerf, of Random House, after what is apparently a period of inhibition, decides the time has come for publisher to bite author. He is fed up with beginning authors who have a quarter of one eye on what they are doing and the rest of their visual equipment focused on Hollywood. "As I bitterly remarked to one of my own authors some time ago, the only thing he really seemed to want was a letter of introduction to Darryl Zanuck." Macaulay's ill-timed toast to Napoleon, because Bonaparte had hanged a publisher, is out of date. If on the streets of New York you happen to see a man wearing a red mask and carrying a headsman's ax, you will know that it is a long-suffering publisher in search of authors.

George Stevens has been both literary critic and publisher. He inquires whether an editor is a frustrated author turned sour. He once remarked that, since books about Abraham Lincoln, doctors, and dogs are likely to be best sellers, he would solicit a manuscript about Lincoln's doctor's dog. His essay would make good "required reading" in one of those courses in "book selection." Philip van Doren Stern is another of that group who are both book designers and authors. He gets on the more optimistic side of the best-seller question by pointing out that scholars once predicted that John Gutenberg's invention would be the ruin of culture.

This reviewer is not trying to get any favors from the Rutgers Press when he selects Earl Schenck Miers' "Academic midwifery: reflections of a rake among scholars" as his favorite in this whole volume. It ought to be compulsory reading for those solemn owls who sometimes compose the "faculty advisory committees" of our university presses. (Librarians too often sit on such committees.) When Americans finally get around to learning that wars can be lost by waste, something may be done about excessive "author's corrections" and remainders which cost demurrage, insurance, and storage.

Arthur W. Rushmore is also a publisher and a fine printer. He got so tired of the Gutenberg quinquecentennial that he and a few associates produced that diary of Mrs. Gutenberg. Teachers of cataloging could have a good time by concealing the volume under review, assigning *The Mainz diary: new light on the invention of printing* to a student in "advanced cataloging," and then sitting back and watching what happens.

Lewis Gannett spends his life denying to himself that he is a polyhistor yet sincerely trying to avoid being a sciolist. To do this he has to master the contents of a book in the shortest possible time. His description of his technique makes good reading for library-school teachers who may want to tell their students how not to spend too much time on assigning subject headings. Laurence Gomme is a bookseller who contends that in his profession one never gets beyond the prime of life. Since too many librarians obviously do, his essay is simply another clinical example of the fact that training for librarian-

ship should include one year's apprenticeship in an antiquarian book shop. If a cataloger makes a mistake in a date, he can get away with it by saying: "So sorry." But, if a bookseller makes such a mistake in his catalog, he may not eat for the next week. Which one is going to learn about books faster?

Lawrance Thompson, curator of rare books at Princeton (now with the United States Navy), gives us twenty pages, which some day, let us hope, he will expand into two hundred. His is a fitting and almost prophetic essay with which this volume concludes. "... Those who have exulted in the dignified beauty and wonder of illuminated manuscripts and monuments of printing will never be able to build the same kind of intellectual and emotional attachment around the ownership of even the most precious rarity recorded on microfilm." It is well known that a certain European sovereign, on tour in America, tried to pay some bills with autographed photographs. The worst of it is that some Americans accepted them.

RANDOLPH G. ADAMS

William L. Clements Library
University of Michigan

Japanese prints of the Ledoux collection: the Primitives. By LOUIS V. LEDOUX.

New York: E. Weyhe, 1942. Large quarto. Pp. 71 + 20 color plates and 30 plates in black and white.

In these days, when Japan is bending all her efforts to the forces of destruction, it is gratifying to have a book appear which calls our attention once again to some of the everlasting beauty which that country gave to the world in her art of the past. The collection of two hundred and fifty Japanese prints belonging to Louis V. Ledoux, of New York, is known the world over for its outstanding importance and exquisite quality. In the sumptuous volume just issued, Mr. Ledoux has reproduced in large size fifty superb prints all belonging to the early period called the Primitive, which extended roughly from 1670 to 1765. This volume, we hope, is the first of a series of which all the parts are written and which would be welcomed by all collectors of prints and lovers of the beautiful.

Innumerable catalogs and general books on Japanese prints have been written, but very few have been entirely devoted to a certain limited period, and none has offered such a happy combination of magnificent reproduction and scholarly text as this. The author has recorded for us the pedigrees of many of these masterpieces, citing, whenever known, other impressions which show important variations. This is a most valuable contribution to the study of these extremely rare prints. Many of them are unique, no other impression being known today in the world. To have such rarities so beautifully reproduced is an invaluable help to students of this branch of oriental art. In citing Japanese sources and the findings of Japanese scholars, particularly those concerning theatrical subjects, the author has given us much new and valuable

material. One can but regret Mr. Ledoux's modesty and restraint in not giving us more of his discriminating analysis of the aesthetic qualities of these prints. Those who have had the privilege of seeing the collection under his hands or who have read his other writings on Japanese prints know that he has a rare felicity of phrase and a penetrating discernment of beauty. Happily, in describing several of the subjects, the author has included his own delightful paraphrases of odes which appear on certain prints and which have formerly been neglected by most collectors. These poems almost inevitably form a subtle key to the meaning of the print. As read by Mr. Ledoux they add greatly to a more understanding appreciation of the hidden beauty of the design.

All fifty plates are superb examples of this great period. Those in color are amazingly close to the great originals. The vital oranges and clear yellows used by the hand colorists of these early prints are faithfully reproduced. The soft pinks, light blues, and touches of gold which adorn the early hand-colored prints of Okumura Masanobu and Ishikawa Toyonobu are remarkably like the tones on the great prints represented. In the last part of the group of twenty color plates, prints done in two or three colors from blocks are illustrated by designs of great beauty and distinction. These bring us to the close of the Primitive Period, after which full color printing flowered.

I have purposely left until the last, mention of the plates in black and white. They are also done with great care and reproduce the rich ink tones of the originals. Without the distraction of beautiful color, one immediately feels the force of the sweeping calligraphic line of these early masters, particularly Torii Kiyomasu and the group who signed their designs Kwaigetsudo—"Moon Viewing Studio." No collection, private or museum, can boast such a selection of these latter prints as can that of Mr. Ledoux. All six of the noted designs by these very rare artists appear in this catalog, and each one is fully described and annotated. This group of Primitives alone would make the collection famous; but in this catalog are forty-one other masterpieces chosen with the keenest discrimination and representing the ultimate in distinction of design, beauty of coloring, and excellence of condition.

HELEN C. GUNSAULUS

Art Institute of Chicago

The work of Frederick Leypoldt, bibliographer and publisher. By JAY W. BESWICK. New York: R. R. Bowker Co., 1942. Pp. iv+102 (lithoprinted).

This book was submitted to the Faculty of Library Science at Columbia University in partial fulfillment of its requirements for the Master's degree. Forty-eight of its one hundred and two pages are devoted to lists of unannotated references and footnotes, as distinct from narrative text. The remaining fifty-four pages, therefore, are too few to permit as definitive a biography as

could be prepared from known materials or, as the author himself observes, a complete list of Leypoldt's nonbibliographical imprints.

Following a brief biographical sketch and an equally brief account of Leypoldt's significant and ripening ten years as bookseller and general publisher in New York and Philadelphia, the author passes with greater emphasis and detail to a thoroughly satisfactory treatment of Leypoldt's bibliographical passion, career, and achievements, which he rightly characterizes as "the phase of his life for which he is chiefly remembered." For this account Mr. Beswick had access to the Bowker manuscripts in the New York Public Library (including Leypoldt's letters) and to the eight more volumes of the Adolph Growoll collection of memorabilia on American trade bibliography history at the office of the *Publisher's weekly*.

In his text or in carefully appended bibliographic entries Mr. Beswick clarifies the often confusing and frequently misstated bibliographical complications attending the titles, origins, overlappings, etc., of the several progenitors of the now seventy-year-old *Publisher's weekly*.

Leypoldt's name indubitably stands with those of Roorbach, Sabin, Kelly, Norton, and Evans in the group of early devoted workers in American bibliography. He rendered invaluable service in establishing, confirming, and continuing the work of these pioneers. Mott, in his *History of American magazines*, terms Leypoldt "publisher turned bibliographer." Was he not always first and pre-eminently bibliographer? Certainly his basic qualities were great love and knowledge of books and rare skill in bibliography. Publishing was, for a time, his business, but bibliography was his passion, and this passion, with his industry, his ambitions, inventive genius, and high ideals, was ever overrunning his pecuniary ability. He was successively aided (perhaps the right word is "rescued") by Henry Holt and R. R. Bowker, who say of him (*Library journal*, LI, 880): "His enthusiastic devotion to bibliography often sent his literary ships to sea without commercial ballast." Yet he was most beloved by his closest associates.

Mr. Beswick is a diligent, accurate, but strictly factual commentator—no eulogist. His words seem wooden and inadequate in describing Leypoldt's personality, ardor, and traits when compared with Growoll in his *Book trade bibliography in the U.S.* (pages lxix-lxxiii and lxxvii). Perhaps Growoll yielded unduly to his affectionate regard for Leypoldt!

Although Leypoldt never was personally identified with the conduct of any library, yet American librarians have been proud and glad to cherish his memory and to regard his work as significant and highly helpful in advancing the beginnings of library literature in the early and often precarious days of the modern library movement in this country. No less eminent a librarian than Melvil Dewey, in zealously advancing his own claims to sole and supreme credit for certain pioneer library work, has disputed the initiative and rather belittled the significance of Leypoldt's work for American libraries. Mr. R. R. Bowker, too, ever an influential side-line friend of libraries, as well

as of Dewey and Leypoldt, has hesitated to record a decision in this matter. Mr. Beswick handles this admittedly obscure question at length and with utmost fairness and fulness, not only presenting his own deductions but citing what seem undoubtedly to be all the manuscripts and printed sources ever likely to be available. No review, in a library journal, of Mr. Beswick's pamphlet should fail to note (1) that Frederick Leypoldt's keen and continuous interest in libraries is certain beyond any doubt; (2) that the germ of such a publication as the *Library journal* clearly is the column or page of "Library and bibliographical notes" which marked the issues of Leypoldt's *Publisher's weekly* from January, 1876; and (3) that without determining or discussing who first thought, spoke, planned, or dreamed of the *Library journal*, it was Frederick Leypoldt who actually published its early volumes, assumed full financial responsibility for them, and for some years bore a financial deficit incurred in their publication.

Mr. Beswick might well have cited the portraits of Leypoldt which occur in *Library journal* (LI, 880) in *Harper's weekly* (XXVIII, 241), and as frontispiece to the original edition (1898) of Growoll. This last, and perhaps best, likeness is unhappily omitted in Mr. E. Byrne Hackett's 1939 reprint of Growoll's volume.

JAMES I. WYER

Salt Lake City, Utah

Public administration and the library. By ARNOLD MILES and LOWELL MARTIN. ("University of Chicago studies in library science.") Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1941. Pp. xiii+313. \$3.00.

We have here a careful study of the place of the public library in the administrative setup of our national, state, and local governments, written from the standpoint of the public administrator and of the student of government. To quote from the Preface:

The public administration view is applied, and, where it encounters lack of conformity in the operation of the public library, an effort is made to identify the peculiar conditions of the situation. On occasion the conclusion is offered that present library practice is difficult to justify; on other occasions the conviction is reached that the administrative generalization is in need of modification in so far as it applies to the public library. Thus the public administration principles are used as guides instead of as dogmas.

It is evident, nevertheless, that existing variations in library thinking and practice are on the defensive.

The book is markedly free, however, from the easy complacency so often found in the writings of students and "experts" in the field of public administration, whose solutions are evolved in the study and in the classroom, without too much benefit from responsibility in the actual processes of government, only to be invalidated surprisingly often by governmental inefficiency,

inertia, and even corruption. The authors of this book have been at great pains to familiarize themselves with the whole of the pertinent literature, con as well as pro, and to study actual situations. Personal experience has also helped to an all-round view. Where their point of view is at variance with that of the majority of practicing librarians, they do justice to the library position in both their argument and their citations. Indeed, at times they seem convinced, almost against their will, of its superiority, only to revert to their own opinion still at the final summing-up.

Though the reviewer confesses himself to be a "practicing librarian," he can follow and commend most of their argument. Librarians can take pride that, as the authors state, the public librarian was early an example of the new administrator, a prototype of the modern public official, and, as such, has, though perhaps without realizing it, contributed to an improving public service. They realize also that gradually civil service and central purchasing departments will cease to look upon themselves as ends in themselves and as protecting primarily the interests of prospective job-holder and of vendor and will become fully helpful in aim and in fact. The very essence of the librarian's work is that he chooses and services books so that they may be of maximum usefulness to the library user; to him the borrower's need and point of view are the important things. He resents, therefore, inflexible, arbitrary, and unimaginative response to his needs for personnel and materials by other governmental agencies.

It is to be hoped also that the time will come when centralized legislative and appropriating bodies will provide financial and other support equitably. Today, all too often, pressure groups and political expediency put the library at a decided disadvantage if with its small spoon it must compete for a share in the common pot of porridge. Only where municipal manners are good can the library sitting at the common table be sure of its proper share. Appreciation of the necessary place of the public library is growing. At the same time local government is becoming better. Both processes are slow, often discouragingly so, and very uneven the country over; but the general goal set by the student of public administration seems sound.

This reviewer disagrees with the authors, however, as to the school and public library front. If he reads them right, they feel that it is inevitable and, on the whole, wise, that the administration of public libraries on all levels will be under the direction of the teaching profession. This will come about by the teachers' taking over first library service to children, then that to adults in connection with adult education, and finally by the inclusion of public libraries under one all-embracing educational authority. This tendency, and it is growing in strength, is opposed also by museum people and by recreation workers, not merely because of a possible feeling that they have a vested interest, but because they realize that there are more ways of acquiring an education than the one with which the school people are most familiar. The classroom method is eminently suited to beginners and to large numbers who wish

to cover the same ground often gone over before. When, however, the interest is in the byways and quiet retreats of knowledge or in new frontiers, then the individual becomes the important determinant. With such help as he needs and finds, he experiments, travels, thinks, and reads. The school typically emphasizes standardization and necessarily must regiment when classes, curriculums, credits, and school terms are involved. But the school is weak on adaptation to individual needs, interests, and talents when these diverge far from the norm.

This is not to find fault with the schools as such. They have developed successfully as agents of formal education. For this very reason, however, they are not adapted to control and direct informal education. Public libraries, with their informal educational and recreational program, are rather allied in their work to museums, parks and recreation areas, public forums and lectures, and, grouped with them, could well be headed up directly to the central legislative and fiscal authority.

Too much reviewing space has been given to one of the questions discussed. Many other topics deserve attention. In a series of meaty chapters are discussed such subjects as the public librarian as a public administrator; library extension; school and public library relationships; library finance and measurement; the library-board form of organization; state library agencies; and state and federal library support. Every chapter is a fair-minded, comprehensive, and often penetrating study and, for those sufficiently interested, will serve also as an introduction to fuller investigation, since the appended bibliography and especially the footnote citations are ample and up to date. Some specific and minor comment and criticism follow.

In chapter i the reviewer noted in passing that two important authorities are quoted as to the functions involved in management. He has the temerity to believe that they have omitted a most important function, which might be termed "analysis"—as indeed the authors, wiser than their authorities, recognize. On page 259 and the following pages they discuss the importance of securing and studying the facts necessary to sound planning. The value of experience in administration is that it represents an accumulation of information helpful in a choice of objectives and methods.

The chapter "State library functions and agencies" is excellent on problems of library promotion and supervision by the state and on state-wide planning. The authors find that in many states there are too many agencies charged with the furnishing of some kind of state library service, e.g., law, legislative reference, historical and general state libraries, library commissions and traveling libraries, state university libraries, and university and agricultural extension agencies giving some library service. Conditions and vested interests are, however, so strong and so variant that neither early nor standard solutions may be expected.

"Local government and library extension" discusses admirably the size and character of library-service areas and various types of consolidation of areas.

A few concluding pages on library co-operation with local government, using centralized purchasing as an example, may be considered a homily to librarians to co-operate more freely. Given honest, efficient, and co-operative city-hall administration, the argument is convincing; but it is amusing to discover, on page 126, that the authors see in centralized purchasing, when done by the public library in the field of books, possible disadvantages which they did not include in their more general discussion.

"The public library and formal education" is a brief introduction to a field which librarians have often found thorny going. One could wish that a book equally authoritative, but written primarily to "educate" the school men, could have wide and careful reading. The authors in this chapter did not work into the discussion sufficiently the successful co-operation in Pittsburgh (and a few other places) or emphasize that constructive working together necessarily depends on a proper allocation of funds to the two types of education. In Kansas City, where the Board of Education is also the Library Board, the superintendent of schools recently was reported to have recommended that, in the current shortage of funds, the kindergartens, the junior college, and the public library be discontinued.

"Library finance" and "The state and federal governments and the support of library service" are excellent presentations. This reviewer has but little quarrel with "The board form of library organization" as a theoretical discussion. He was pleased to find the following:

No delusions should be entertained concerning the speed with which governmental reform is progressing. It is a slow and tedious process, and it is hindered by vestiges of progressive movements—many of the civil service systems, for example—which are reform in name only. To the extent that rational local government is a hope rather than an actuality, the present type of library board administration is preferable.

The final chapter, "Library measurement," seemed the most stimulating and useful. While earlier chapters are chiefly skilful summaries of the thinking of administrators and of students of administration, this chapter is itself a contribution. Discussed are the role of research, measuring library service, library criteria, library surveys, and collection of data. It is doubtful, however, even if all libraries reported in the full detail recommended, and to a central agency, that library questionnaires would cease to trouble.

Librarians should give thanks for this and other books devoted to public library administration and for the fact that their number is growing at a gratifying rate. They help us in our efforts to clarify our thinking and to perfect our practice. Equally important, however, is the fact that they place on record the pros and cons of our administrative problems and present the librarian's point of view as at least a partial and necessary corrective to that of the school man and the public administrator, neither of whom lacks in confident articulateness.

CARL VITZ

Minneapolis Public Library

Print, radio, and film in a democracy. Edited by DOUGLAS WAPLES. ("University of Chicago studies in library science.") Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1942. Pp. xiv+197. \$2.00.

What are print, radio, and film doing to and for American democracy? What influence do they have on public opinion in adult education? What is the task of libraries in clarifying public opinion and strengthening democracy? How well are libraries really doing this job? How much do we actually know about the answers to these questions? That these questions are today among the most vital facing librarians, educators, public officials, and citizens is as plain as the Washington Monument. But how many of us have asked these questions seriously for more than five earnest minutes and then tried conscientiously to find out as much as possible about the answers?

In this (too) short, lively, and very stimulating volume, eleven competent and experienced authorities tell what they have found. Their reports make the most timely and important book on any current list of librarians' reading. It is not only a readable and thoughtful book for all nonfiction shelves, but every library-staff member should make it required personal reading. The book reveals striking glimpses of the drama of propaganda and public opinion; it projects farsighted plans and hopes for the future; and it also probes for and reaches, time and again, the very throb of those painful problems of democracy that bewilder and frighten us today.

If librarians are to understand what is and what is not going on in their special world and in the world they serve, they must ask, and keep on asking, the questions in this book. As Waples sums it up in his editorial Introduction, the book focuses on

the problem of administering mass communications in the public interest, that is, for the common good and without exceeding the democratic limits of popular consent. . . . Many Americans of good will are deeply perplexed by the abundant misinformation about the effects of press, radio, film, the polls, the war news, the activities of government agencies, the pressure-group propaganda, and much else upon public opinions. Such misinformation is dangerous for many reasons; it is especially dangerous in wartime when it tends to confuse the study of propaganda with propaganda itself.

Mapping the basic democratic principles which have become the battleground of mass communications, Elsten (communications analyst, United States Department of Justice) asks: "How can we guarantee to the majority and to the loyal minorities a more equal opportunity to be heard?" Answering, he outlines the code of the broadcasters and the various proposals for securing a fair and truthful press. He ends with the warning: "Looking abroad we have seen what happened to democracy as a result of the partisanship fostered by one-sided communications. In the end the partisanship became so rigid that the partisans stopped communicating with one another. They ended by blowing democracy to bits. We must not let that happen here."

How the totalitarian state uses mass communications, particularly printed

and broadcast news, is vividly told, with many actual examples, by Kris (formerly one of Britain's "secret six" and now directing similar research in totalitarian communications at the New School for Social Research). "[News is] a commodity in the democracies," he says; "in the dictatorships it designates a means of social influence"—a weapon of psychological warfare. He leaves us stunned by the feeling of the overwhelming and terrifying power of radio as used by Germany, in contrast to British and Russian broadcasting. But nowhere is the power of press and radio news as great as it seems, he admits, in warning of the possible "death of public confidence in the news. The mediums of mass communication . . . are now viewed with deep distrust."

What are really the effects of print on public opinion? Berelson (analyst, Federal Communications Commission) answers by explaining the results of one of the most interesting public opinion researches ever made—a pioneer investigation of just what influences typical American voters before a presidential election. He finds that

in the formation of mass opinion, the treatment of social problems in the daily newspaper and the popular magazines are the major sources of stimuli. . . . Perhaps 2 or 3 per cent of the population—students and professional workers—read such books [serious books on social problems]. . . . Nothing is clearer than that print (or communication) alone does not determine public opinion. . . . The greater the argument's circulation in the community the greater the incentive for people to make up their minds about it. . . . And when they do make up their minds, their decision ordinarily follows predispositions.

How does radio influence public opinion? How does it work in education? Lazarsfeld (Office of Radio Research and Columbia University) answers:

By and large people tend to listen only to programs with which they agree. . . . In the political field this . . . probably makes people more class conscious. . . . No studies have yet discovered any major changes in public opinion which can be attributed to radio. . . . There are no programs which consistently express new social ideas. . . . Experiences in the field of educational broadcasting . . . have definitely shown that programs are most effective when they promote the activities of organizations . . . which have an independent status of their own and use radio to supplement other means of promoting their aims. . . . Programs with only a small audience might, in the long run, be the socially more important ones.

What of the film's effect on public opinion? Slesinger (executive director, American Film Center) answers:

The educational appeal necessarily has to be selective. . . . The idea presented must be relatively acceptable and . . . it must be reiterated in film after film. . . . Anyone who wishes to use the entertainment film to modify public opinion . . . must appeal to a sentiment that is powerfully stimulated in other ways. . . . The newsreels, like the feature films, follow rather than lead public opinion.

And he points out that as the size of the film audience "increases, we are reduced to entertainment, as the lowest common denominator."

What ideas and propagandas are being communicated over the world? What are their effects on our democratic politics? How can the results of re-

search be used in developing a realistic public opinion? Lasswell (political scientist, director of War Communications Research, Library of Congress) points out the weakness of so-called "propaganda analysis" and explains the new techniques of studying communication. He warns us that "some modern democracies have disintegrated because public opinion was unable to agree upon sound policies in time to act effectively. . . . Very little attention is paid [in the existing streams of communication] to the presentation of definite policy objectives or clear-cut policy alternatives."

What is known about the receiving end of mass communications? Is public opinion being accurately measured? Gosnell (associate professor of political science, University of Chicago), suggesting ways of improving polls, says, ". . . public opinion surveys tend to distort the opinion of the lower-income groups." And going deeper than this, he reminds us that "it cannot be assumed that there is a public opinion on many of the issues which are investigated."

How much do we really know now about the effects of mass communications? Very little, says Stouffer (professor of sociology, University of Chicago).

I do not happen to know of a single really airtight controlled experiment on the effect of communications which has been carried out on adults other than college students. . . . The difficulty of evaluating cumulative effects of many small stimuli in the field of communications is all the more serious because there is good basis for the belief that it is in just this way that communications have their principal effect. . . . The case method and the collection of anecdotes do not supply proof of a generalization . . . and can be deceptive. . . .

Do the problems of public opinion go back to school education? What has mass-communications research revealed about inadequacies in our schools? Tyler (chairman of the department of education, University of Chicago) answers: "Public opinion polls show clearly that some of the most basic concepts for effective living in a modern, industrial democracy are not understood by our citizens. Yet a great many of these citizens are graduates of our public schools." He declares that existing "propaganda analysis" courses result in "a kind of immunity to propaganda . . . in which propaganda of all sorts is rejected and the student continues to believe whatever he believed before . . . which makes it impossible for new ideas and new beliefs to be communicated."

Do libraries accept responsibility for clarifying public opinion and how effective are they? Beals (assistant librarian, District of Columbia Public Library, and new director of the University Libraries, University of Chicago), in answering this and many other searching questions, throws a quiet but disturbing light on the very foundations upon which library service is believed to rest:

It would be difficult to show that public librarians have accepted responsibility for the clarification of specific issues. . . . Few public librarians have deliberately set themselves the task, first, of compiling a list of important issues before the public at any one

time, second, of acquiring a wholly adequate stock of materials appropriate to the clarification of these issues, and, third, of "pushing" these materials to the limit of their potential circulation.

In a trenchant discussion of the literature of librarianship, he refers to "glad tidings" which are

speculative essays about what might, could, would, or should be true of public librarianship, and announcements, more or less unvarnished, of something about to be done or very recently undertaken. . . . To the student of communication, the value of glad tidings as evidence of social influence is nil.

He suggests challenging examples of what librarians could do in research and how library service could benefit from the results.

The first and most important implication of what these writers say is that, as far as educational value and influence on public opinion are concerned, mass communication is a myth. It is not that Lazarsfeld and Slesinger, for instance, do not want to believe in the power of the radio and film—they do, very much. But they have to admit that the power of radio and film, which we have taken for granted, is only "potential"—it "will be used to influence public opinion" in the future. This reviewer believes that their power in the future will prove as illusory as it is now.

A depressing footnote in the history of human gullibility will be the story of the wholesale swallowing by educators and librarians of the fairy tale of the "educational" power of the film and the radio. Too many have confused potential mass audience with actual audiences and mass audience with mass effect—forgetting that ten million *times* zero is zero. We have confused communication with transmission and transmission with education. We persist in thinking of mass communication as analogous to transportation—that something goes from here to there, to a great many people in a great many places. But if we insist on thinking of communication as a sort of transportation, we must also try to visualize a "carload" of communicated oranges as they are delivered—very few are as shipped, a few are rotten, a few have strangely become pebbles or lemons, and more than 99 per cent are missing.

The second implication of this book for librarians is, therefore, that they must accept the full task of adult education on a large scale—that kind of adult education which is the very life of democracy. They cannot share this task with any new mass-communications mediums. If we believe that democracy can flourish with uninformed and unthinking masses, then we have nothing to worry about, and there is no need for libraries—we are very well organized for the mass production and mass distribution of mass communications of pretentious drivel, vulgarity, phoney art, and confusion.

The third implication for librarians is that nobody yet knows enough about the effects of radio and film, even on small, selected audiences, to make these mediums of any real help in stimulating worth-while reading and sustained interest in library use.

The fourth implication for librarians is that there are no easy ways of transforming the library as it is today into a socially effective channel of education for democracy. It will require infinite pains and patience. It will require scientific research—which does not, as most of us believe, necessarily have to be shut off and far away from everyday library operation. It will demand the creation of new techniques of library service, based on the scientific fundamentals of education through print. And the sooner those fundamentals are understood, the safer will democracy be.

PELHAM BARR

New York City

Laws affecting school libraries. By EDITH A. LATHROP and WARD W. KEESECKER. ("Bulletin 1940," No. 7.) Washington: Federal Security Agency and United States Office of Education, 1941. Pp. vii+136. \$0.20.

The increasing importance of library service to the modern school's educational program and the lack of an up-to-date digest on state legislation for school libraries are jointly responsible for this bulletin from the United States Office of Education. It is the purpose of this study to compile the specific school-library legislation now in force in the various states. In making the compilation, the sources of data used included the consolidated statutes of the states, session laws, and the school laws, as well as reports, publications, and correspondence from the state departments of education.

Part I is a summary of school-library legislation for all states. Seven summary tables show the various states' express legal provision affecting school libraries in regard to procedures for establishment, financial support, administration and supervision, books, librarians, relationships with state library agencies, and relationships with public libraries. Part II is a digest of the school-library legislation for each state. The headings used in Part I are repeated for each state digest and subdivided according to district, county, and state.

To make a compilation of school-library legislation of the forty-eight states and the District of Columbia and to establish uniform patterns into which this legislation can be fitted is a complicated and difficult task. The work has been done in detail, and great care has been taken to avoid misinterpretation by using the exact wording of the laws.

The importance of this compilation to most administrators and librarians might be questioned, since there is little to indicate desirable practices, and no attempt has been made to evaluate the present laws. However, as a basis for further study regarding the effect of administrative procedures, the need for further legislation, or the relationship of the library to the general school program, *Laws affecting school libraries* should prove invaluable.

RUTH ERSTED

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County library primer. By MILDRED W. SANDOE. New York: H. W. Wilson Co., 1942. Pp. 221. \$2.25.

County library primer must be considered in the light of the purpose with which it was written. The key to that is found in the Introduction, in which Miss Sandoe says:

To help new librarians avoid the errors made by those who pioneered in this work in Ohio, Ohio librarians and the Ohio State Library have brought together factual material on all phases of the undertaking. It is our hope that this material, compiled for the use of new county workers in Ohio, may be of help to librarians elsewhere, faced with problems of extending library service.

The primary purpose of the book, therefore, was to help Ohio librarians who would doubtless meet the same problems and the same conditions encountered by those who had already worked out various systems in other Ohio counties. In this purpose the book succeeds admirably. Furthermore, the hope that the material may be of help to librarians elsewhere will also, without doubt, be realized in several particulars.

The Introduction sets the scene by sketching present county library conditions in Ohio. In chapter ii there is a very brief history of the public library movement in the United States, followed by an account of the development of libraries in Ohio. Some of the fundamental difficulties in rural library service are noted in this chapter. Following this, however, the book becomes very explicit concerning Ohio policies and procedures.

Naturally, the Ohio survey and its results are first considered. The survey was the foundation of the Ohio plan of county library service, and some of the material included will be useful to other states wishing to establish county library systems. Two forms were used—the county library survey form and the public library survey form. The latter is given in full in McDiarmid's *The library survey*, but for county-library purposes the other form, which I have not seen in previous publications, is particularly useful, and the information it furnishes seems adequate and pertinent. Some detailed findings, with recommendations in regard to them, are given.

The next two chapters, on "Financing and public relations" and "The board and staff of the county library," are very local in their application. The tables, graphs, and illustrations are suggestive, however, although their effectiveness is marred in some cases by fine print which is difficult to decipher. On account of the very wide diversity in county library conditions and practice, it has been difficult so far to draw up standards for county-library service. In the chapters just mentioned some effort has been made to give certain standards that have been found desirable in Ohio. These will be useful for comparison in other states.

The chapters on "Branches" and "Stations and service by mail" are detailed and are supplemented by a thoroughly illustrated section on "Methods and records." These chapters seem particularly useful for Ohio librarians.

Considering the effort that is constantly being made to find ways of co-operating in library service so that more economical methods may be found, the experiments through a county library federation will be interesting to many. The contract that was used is given in full, and the budget, circulation, staff, and equipment are described. In addition, advantages of the centralized service are listed at the end of the description of the plan.

One of the most useful chapters in the book to those both in and out of Ohio is the one on bookmobiles. The various types in use in Ohio are described in detail. Other subjects useful to the prospective bookmobile purchaser include the budget necessary for the bookmobile, sample schedules, publicity, bookmobile staff, insurance and licenses, and very practical suggestions regarding lighting, heating, keys, the type of steps that are most convenient, etc. This chapter contains also arguments regarding the advantages of the bookmobile for county library service. The information is supported by specifications, pictures, and statistics in the second part of the book, which deals entirely with illustrative material. Anyone who is contemplating the use of bookmobiles will do well to study the *County library primer* in addition to *Book automobiles* ("Library equipment studies," No. 1), issued by the American Library Association in 1937.

About forty-five pages preceding the Index are given over to a recommended list of adult books for bookmobile and branch collections. This seems to me to be an unnecessary feature of the book. In the first place, there are already a large number of authorities from which collections can be intelligently made up. Then, again, a list of this sort very quickly goes out of date in many particulars. Finally, it would hardly be desirable to have practically the same books in all Ohio counties—a condition which might prevail if librarians followed these recommendations very strictly.

The *County library primer* would perhaps be more accurately titled *Ohio county library primer*, since it is essentially a handbook for Ohio-county librarians. A general county library primer would presumably contain a discussion of the fundamental principles of county library service, such as the features of an adequate county library law, would place more emphasis on the necessity for trained librarians, and would include a more universal description of the structure of county government. Library schools, as well as the profession in general, still need a county library primer which will discuss the essential principles and fundamental purposes of county library service. However, Miss Sandoe's *County library primer* will be of practical value and interest to both newcomers and veterans in the county library field for its account of the Ohio situation and the leadership of the state library, for its detailed information, and for the spirit of service which prompted its writing.

MABEL R. GILLIS

California State Library

Histories and historians of Hispanic America. By A. CURTIS WILGUS. 2d ed. New York: H. W. Wilson Co., 1942. Pp. xii+144. \$1.75.

A good many titles have been added to this second edition—titles which, for the most part, have appeared since 1936, the date when the first edition was published. Few other changes have been made. The volume contains five chapters, each of them covering a century of historical publications on Hispanic America. The most valuable sections are those treating the works written during the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries. Information on the historians and histories of the later period is rather scanty and at times not very illuminating. Histories dealing with economic themes are largely neglected, especially those treating the epoch since independence. The volume will prove most valuable to librarians and to those beginning the study of Latin-American history. The list of bibliographical and biographical works at the end of the volume should be useful to scholars engaged in more intensive research.

Bibliographie générale et méthodique d'Haïti. By ULRICK DUVIVIER. 2 vols. Port-au-Prince, Haiti: Imprimerie de l'Etat, 1941. Pp. xiii+318; 411.

This is the largest and most complete bibliography that has appeared on the history of Haiti. The work is divided into six parts, without much regard for logical arrangement. The first part deals with the native inhabitants and the discovery, including numerous items on Columbus. The second is concerned with geography, cartography, fauna, and flora. The third is entitled "History"; but only the history of the colonial period and the bloody wars of liberation is included. The fourth part contains a list of sources and treatises on law and jurisprudence. The fifth embraces a number of topics: travelogues; the recognition of Haitian independence by France; slavery, the slave trade, and race prejudice; diseases, medicine, and hospitals. The sixth and last part includes sources of information on literature, constitutions, public education, and economic development. It also contains a list of Haitian newspapers.

The organization of this bibliography therefore seems chaotic. Yet, in view of the numerous items listed, many of them with judicious critical comment, and in view of the scarcity of such works on Haiti, scholars interested in that country will be grateful to M. Duvivier for these two volumes, which must become the starting-point for any serious study of Haitian civilization. To this reviewer the most interesting sections of the bibliography are those dealing with Haitian newspapers and with the controversy over slavery and the slave trade. Aside from the chaotic organization already mentioned, the greatest defects of the work are the absence of a systematic list of historical publications dealing with Haiti since 1804 and the lack of an index.

J. FRED RIPPY

University of Chicago

Colonial panorama, 1775: Dr. Robert Honyman's journal for March and April.

Edited by PHILIP PADELFORD. San Marino, Calif.: Huntington Library, 1939. Pp. xiii+86. \$2.00.

Perhaps the chief value of this charming journal lies in Dr. Robert Honyman's impartial treatment of the facts he recorded. After reading countless broadsides, newspapers, and pamphlets written by Tories and Whigs concerning their many distorted viewpoints, it is indeed gratifying to read an unbiased account of a pleasurable journey from Virginia to the northern colonies on the eve of the American Revolution. Even though Honyman's journey was one of pleasure, his observations are especially important to students of Colonial history.

It has been said before, and it needs to be repeated, that American history, especially the history of the Colonial period, has not been adequately written because we have not as yet had access to all the facts nor have we always interpreted what facts we have in the light of truth. Many of our historians, unfortunately, have been attacked by a "nationalistic" virus, the effects of which may not be immediately apparent, but which, nevertheless, have been damaging to authenticity. Dr. Padelford and the trustees of the Henry E. Huntington Library and Art Gallery are to be congratulated on their selection of this important document for publication.

An interesting feature of the book is the well-documented biographic account of Dr. Robert Honyman which serves as the introduction to the journal. Dr. Padelford suggests, in the account, that Honyman's high status in life is reflected by his occasional visits at the house of President Madison—a suggestion which, in turn, reflects the significance of the interpretation of this source material.

Throughout the journal the reader is made aware of the growing feeling of tension in some of the northern colonies. In New York, especially, "Party spirit is very high" (p. 29) while in Philadelphia "people only minded their business." Honyman was determined to get an unbiased account of the quarrel with England and, therefore, browsed in New York in James Rivington's printing shop because "he is the only man to furnish me with both sides of the question" (p. 32).

Honyman, in witnessing military maneuvers of British soldiers in Boston, made the following ominous observation: "There are continual differences happening between the officers & towns people, & I think if they remain here much longer, some desperate affair must happen." The growing feeling for freedom is noticed especially near Charlestown, where "the People all the way I travelled yesterday & to day are furious in the cause of liberty."

The author, who appears to have been devout, observed that the ministers of the Church of England were Tories and that the Presbyterians and independent ministers supported the cause of freedom. He did not dwell much on the subject of medicine but did refer to the epidemic of smallpox that was

prevalent in and around Boston. On March 28 he attended a town meeting called to order to determine what was to be done about the smallpox. The calling of this meeting was contrary to a new Colonial law, as Honyman observed, which held that the consent of the governor was necessary for such a meeting, yet the governor's advice was not asked. Although many of the townspeople favored inoculation, "it was determined that the Select men should continue their care & vigilance in regard to the S. pox & make no alteration."

Mention should be made of the attractive typographic format of this book and the inclusion of facsimile reproductions of two contemporary maps to guide the reader, the first of which charts the country through which Dr. Honyman traveled on his way from Virginia to Philadelphia, and the second of which is "A plan of the town of Boston."

THOMAS E. KEYS

Mayo Clinic Library
Rochester, Minnesota

Jesuit relations of Canada, 1632-1673: a bibliography. By JAMES C. MCCOY.
Paris: Arthur Rau, 1937. Pp. 345.

Unhappily, Mr. McCoy did not live to see the publication of his distinguished bibliography. In his long experience as collector and student of the Jesuit relations of New France, he felt the need for a more complete and more finished bibliography than he could find among the works of his predecessors in this field. He therefore devoted ten years to the assembling and compiling of the data which make up this volume. He completed his manuscript, and his family has published it as a fitting memorial; except for a few additions in notes concerning variants, found since his death, the text has remained unaltered. The forty-one reports are described in 132 editions and variants. In accordance with the author's wishes, a facsimile of the title-page of each item appears opposite the description. The bibliographical details note title, location of copies, citations of authorities, precise collations, and textual comparisons. At the end of the volume there is a convenient list of references to texts in Thwaites's reprints and a synoptic table of thirty pages tabulating variations.

To further add distinction to the volume, Dr. Lawrence C. Wroth has written a historical introduction and an essay on the bibliography of Jesuit relations. The work has been splendidly designed and printed in 350 copies under the directorship of Arthur Rau. It will not soon be superseded and should be considered the definitive work on the subject, perhaps for always.

RUTH LAPHAM BUTLER

Newberry Library
Chicago

American manuscript collections in the Huntington Library for the history of the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries. Compiled by NORMA S. CUTHBERT. ("Huntington Library lists," No. 5.) San Marino: Huntington Library, 1941. Pp. 93.

In the realm of historical literature, there are probably no more useful and no more uninteresting volumes than check lists. The Huntington Library list, No. 5, defies the usual limitations of a catalog, for it is good reading matter. The quality of the materials with which Miss Norma S. Cuthbert has had to deal would of itself be sufficient reward for the drudgery involved in describing them. The format of the list assures one that the compiler had greater pleasure than is customary in the production of such an inventory.

Each of the twenty-eight collections, for only collections are included, is described under the following headings: (1) biographical data concerning the person for whom the collection is named, or facts relating to the general subject heading used when there is no one person or family to whom the collection can be assigned, (2) provenance, (3) number of pieces, (4) period covered, (5) subject matter, in outline, (6) some important or interesting items, (7) persons represented by ten or more pieces, (8) physical description.

The prefatory paragraphs furnish introductory or background matter, and these are in most cases adequate. The provenance is given for each collection, an unusual possibility in the libraries of many private collectors and often a factor whose usefulness goes far beyond the satisfaction of curiosity over former ownership. The subject matter, although in outline, seems to have been painstakingly undertaken and is rather detailed. Other divisions of the descriptive outline require less judgment upon the part of the compiler but certainly show careful examination of all materials. One cannot help but be impressed by the fact that all these collections are of sufficient importance to warrant separate and extended check lists if time were no obstacle.

The list is selective. The criterion for selection is explained in the Preface:

This report excludes all miscellaneous material, regardless of importance, except certain volumes that seemed to be valuable as collateral to the collections that are included. Moreover, certain collections have been omitted—namely, all heterogeneous groups, and homogeneous groups of less than forty pieces (forty being a purely arbitrary figure chosen for technical reasons).

We have, therefore, a report on what have been considered the more important collections of American historical manuscripts of the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries. One has the vague feeling that many other manuscripts in the Huntington Library to which he might wish to refer and which might be even as important as the ones described are still inaccessible except by personal investigation. But these may be covered in later inventories.

Supplemental to the main list are appendixes covering orderly books for the American Revolution and miscellaneous manuscript volumes, such as

diaries, letter-books, journals, logbooks, essays, and reports, which are listed without notes. There is an index of place names, personal names, and a few subjects.

Newberry Library
Chicago

RUTH LAPHAM BUTLER

Official catalog of documents-reports-maps published by agencies of the state of California. Compiled and distributed by Supervisor of Documents, Bureau of Printing, Department of Finance, State Capitol, Sacramento, Calif. \$3.00 per year.

The California supervisor of documents is to be commended for the admirable manner in which he has executed the request of the California Library Association for a current check list of California state publications. The *Official catalog* is standard (six by nine inches) in size, is arranged by departments of the state government and their subordinate offices, and is equipped with varicolored guides for rapid reference. It is perforated for possible insertion into a loose-leaf binder, but the binder is not provided.

Each of the departmental guide cards contains on its recto a classification of the divisions and bureaus in the department and on its verso an organization chart of the department; the first sheet after each departmental and minor office guide provides the name of the chief of the department, division, or bureau. The *Catalog* was first issued on April 1, 1940, and at that time endeavored to list all the documents published since July 1, 1939, plus such "standard" documents of earlier dates as were still in print. These sheets are offset-printed on good quality bond paper as the basic catalog. Since April, 1940, the supervisor of printing has issued monthly supplements of new mimeographed sheets listing all documents published in the previous month for insertion into the basic catalog.

This *Official catalog* will be indispensable to those libraries endeavoring to maintain complete files of California documents and will be extremely helpful to all libraries wishing to make relevant selections from the publications of California for their collections. There is as yet no subject index to the *Catalog*, but there seems to be no reason why this could not be handled on the same loose-leaf basis as the *Catalog* itself. This noteworthy effort by the state of California to bring order out of the chaos of state publication could be profitably emulated by other state governments, with or without the recommendations of their respective state library associations.

LEROY CHARLES MERRITT

State Teachers College
Farmville, Virginia

Early American sheet music: its lure and its lore, 1768-1889. By HARRY DICHTER and ELLIOT SHAPIRO. New York: R. R. Bowker Co., 1941. Pp. xxvii+287. \$7.50.

In days of stress such as we are experiencing it is worthy of note that the American writer on music continues to produce books which enrich the cultural background of the way of life for which we are so valiantly fighting. The extent of his productiveness is evident when one turns to the "Quarterly book-list" which appears as part of each issue of the *Musical quarterly*. This book list includes only the more substantial and serious publications. During the last two years, by actual count, there appeared in this list over three hundred items published in the United States, and of this number nearly a third dealt with some phase of American music, American musical life, or American musicians. This proportion may seem to be fairly high, and the casual observer may attribute it to the inaccessibility of European material. The world-conflict unquestionably has had its effect on the selection of subjects, but enough serious studies of our musical life, both past and present, have been made to make it evident that this is not a simulated but a genuine interest. *The opera and its future in America* by Herbert Graf, *Our contemporary composers: American music in the twentieth century* by John Tasker Howard, and *Early New England psalmody* by Hamilton Crawford Macdougall are among the books of serious intent which have appeared during this two-year period.

In the realm of music itself (and not books about music) there is an even greater wealth of material. The publications cited in the "Book-list" are divided quite evenly between two types of material: first, collections of folk songs adopted by or indigenous to the United States and the Americas and, second, collections of popular and national songs dealing with subjects typically American. It is with this second category that we are mainly concerned, although it must be remembered that frequently what is written as a popular song today may take on the characteristics of a folk song tomorrow. There is always a fascination in tracing the history of such songs, and books describing the circumstances under which certain songs have been written have appeared from time to time. One book which contains such historical information, concisely and succinctly presented, is the subject of this review. In *Early American sheet music: its lure and its lore, 1768-1889*, we find not only six hundred pieces of early music described with complete bibliographical details and classified according to subject but also a directory of early American music publishers which, as the only comprehensive work of its kind to be published to date, is invaluable. A *Music directory of early New York City* was recently published by Virginia Larkin Redway (1941), but this is restricted in its scope and for that reason cannot be as generally useful as the directory prepared by Dichter and Shapiro. This section of the book will prove particularly valuable to catalogers of early American sheet music, since the imprint date is so frequently omitted from this type of material.

While the number of items listed in the first half of the book is not exhaustive, the care and detail with which each item is described is highly commendable. The authors have been accurate and exact in the physical description of each song included and have given enough detail so that a copy or a variant of a particular song can be identified without hesitation. The division into periods is good, and the groupings under appropriate subjects make the material readily available.

Two other features should not be overlooked: the list of lithographers and artists working on American sheet music before 1870 (compiled by Edith A. Wright and Josephine A. McDevitt) and the thirty-two plates which add greatly to the "lure" of this phase of "antique-hunting." We have here a book which is authoritative and scholarly as well as practical and useful. It is a book which we as Americans can be proud of—a "must" for every well-equipped research library.

HELEN E. BUSH

Library of Congress

Union list of microfilms: a basic list of holdings in the United States and Canada.

Compiled by the COMMITTEE ON MICROPHOTOGRAPHY OF THE PHILADELPHIA BIBLIOGRAPHICAL CENTER and UNION LIBRARY CATALOGUE. Philadelphia: Philadelphia Bibliographical Center and Union Library Catalogue, 1942. Pp. xiii+379. \$4.00.

During the past several years the need for a union list of microfilms has become apparent. The Committee on Scientific Aids to Learning of the National Research Council mentioned this need in its report, *Microphotography for scholarly purposes*, in July, 1940. Mr. Herbert A. Kellar called attention to it in his *Memoranda on library cooperation* in 1941. The American Library Association's Committee on the Photographic Reproduction of Library Materials pondered the possibility of such a union list at the Boston meeting in 1941 but declined to do anything about it.

In fact, the A. L. A.'s experts not only declined to sponsor a union list of microfilms—and they were aware of the Philadelphia plan to issue one—but did not entertain the suggestion that they establish criteria on which a satisfactory list might be based. The H. W. Wilson Company was prepared to publish a cumulative microfilm index on much the same plan as the *Cumulative book index*. Sample entries were prepared for the Boston meeting, but the A.L.A. Committee withheld its sanction. Members of that committee maintained that a satisfactory list was not practicable.

The Philadelphia Bibliographical Center's Committee deserves credit, therefore, for its initiative in compiling this first volume despite inadequate funds and for the extraordinary degree of success of the project. The list as it appears has many shortcomings, as Mr. Danton says in his Foreword. But it is an excellent start toward a goal which must be reached soon, either by sup-

plements to the Philadelphia list (a first supplement is under way) or by some new and cumulative publication, perhaps issued as a commercial enterprise.

As Mr. Danton states in the Foreword:

The use to which a list of this sort could be put and the savings which might result from its use appear to be fairly obvious: (1) As an aid to libraries and possibly individuals to building up collections of specialized materials; (2) As a tool to locate films and as a guide for interlibrary loan; (3) As a preventive of duplicate reproduction activities on the part of libraries wishing to secure copies of out of the way materials; (4) As an aid in the shaping of a planned policy for further filming. These points justify the belief that a union check list of microfilms is a tool of research value.

And it might be emphasized, as (3) implies, that once material which is fragile or otherwise difficult to handle or assemble, or to which access may have been limited, has been filmed, its appearance in a union list makes it unnecessary to repeat what might have been a difficult or expensive procedure. Indeed one can readily imagine the owners or curators of some documents refusing to allow repeated photographing of their collections.

One hundred and two institutions contributed records of their holdings to this list, and, under the respective items, the locations of the films are given by the usual symbols. The 5,221 items listed probably represent the majority of the films held by the principal institutions of the United States and Canada, if we except the great mass of material photographed under some of the large microfilming projects and the films of the four libraries which did not contribute their holdings—the Library of Congress, the University of Chicago, the Newberry, and the Huntington. Fortunately, certain Huntington films were listed in the union catalogs of the Library of Congress and were relayed to the Philadelphia Bibliographical Center by Mr. Schwegmann.

Mr. Danton states that this union list includes catalogs A, B, and C of Southwestern Microfilm, Incorporated, but that catalog D is omitted "partly because of the difficulty of verifying the entries." There are also omissions in the transcription of items from the catalogs A, B, and C, and the supplements to each of those catalogs seem not to have been covered. The University Microfilms (now Microfilms, Inc.) project on books printed in England before 1600 is not analyzed because the items can be located in the special catalogs issued at Ann Arbor. (See also Pollard and Redgrave's catalog.) The dissertations published by University Microfilms in their *Microfilm abstracts* are listed, and their "American periodicals series" appears under a series entry (No. 109) but with the misleading cross-reference, "See also individual entries." Actually the only individual entries are for those libraries reporting copies. In the case of the "American culture series" there is a similar cross-reference, but the individual titles do not appear.

Mr. Schwegmann's list of newspapers in the *Journal of documentary reproduction* (IV, 122-34) is included in the *Union list of microfilms*, as are the very important Modern Language Association films. Project H of the Library of Congress is a part of this M.L.A. project of reproducing scholarly material.

The M.L.A. catalog, *Reproductions of manuscripts and rare printed books*, cumulated to January, 1942, and indexed, is much more satisfactory to use in locating their films but did not appear in time for inclusion in the union list. Projects A-G of the Library of Congress, to the extent that film was employed therein, do not appear, except perhaps as scattered items reported by libraries owning copies. Likewise missing are the American Council of Learned Societies emergency project films (under Dr. Kellar), and the Jefferson and Preston collections of films in the manuscript division of the Library of Congress. As related above, the Library of Congress did not supply lists of its holdings of films to the Philadelphia Center. In the case of the M.L.A. films, at least, they were not requested of the manuscript division. Thus the Center may not be blameless.

The National Archives films appear, as in the Colorado territorial papers, and the Michigan and Oregon superintendency of Indian affairs documents. Some of the Historical Records Survey material is included but is not entered consistently by series or individual item. The Supreme Court briefs are here, having been reported by three libraries holding positive copies; but not the University of Chicago's Department of Anthropology films. Also missing are the University of Texas Lathrop films of materials relating to southern history. The first Brown University list of Latin-American materials came out too late for inclusion.

A statement in the Foreword about these well-known microfilm projects, in addition to the few which Mr. Danton does mention there, would have advised the user of the union list what he could expect to find in this area and what was omitted and why.

There are several very good reasons why the items filmed on some of these projects do not appear in the *Union list of microfilms*: first, the films prepared on many of the projects have not yet been cataloged and so could not have been listed for the Philadelphia Bibliographical Center; second, even if they had been cataloged, complete lists of all items in many of these projects when combined would have required numerous such volumes as this; third, it is not yet definite in some cases whether the films can be used by the public or under what conditions they can be used or whether positives can be sold or lent, and hence it would be a mistake for the present to announce them; and, fourth, it is probable that special catalogs will be issued for many of the projects, to which scholars can be referred. Special catalogs are logically, though not actually in some cases, better for the location of special types of films. Such catalogs should, of course, be cited in any union list.

Mr. Danton requests that private collections of films be called to the Philadelphia Bibliographical Center's attention. Private collectors may well find it inconvenient to allow the use of their films on the premises; may not be equipped to handle loans; and, for various reasons, may not be in a position to allow copies to be made. So it is likely that a union list of microfilms should

enter private collections by subject and extent only and not by individual items.

However, in the case of the large projects sponsored by colleges, universities, other institutions, foundations, learned societies, etc., these projects, unanalyzed, might well appear in the *Union list of microfilms* with brief descriptions of their nature and scope, by whom financed, the laboratory doing the filming, dates of inauguration and completion, number of pages filmed or number of feet or reels, etc., whether negatives or copies can be used at the owning institution, whether copies of the entire collection and of single items are available, the prices, whether there is a special catalog covering the project, etc. An approach to this kind of entry is that of "Music microfilm archive" (No. 5122). To secure these data will require considerable correspondence and related work by the Philadelphia Bibliographical Center, but it is important, and one hopes that adequate funds will be made available for supplements to the present volume to include this information.

The bibliographical descriptions in this first volume are accurate, and no one need be in doubt about the identity of items referred to, for which Mr. Rudolf Hirsch deserves praise. Apparently he is less shy about films than the many catalogers who still regard them as anomalies and who, consequently, are unable to supply reliable lists of their holdings. However, throughout the volume the length of films is sometimes given in feet, sometimes in reels, and sometimes in frames, and too often is not given at all. Consequently, the prospective purchaser usually has no idea of the cost of a copy, nor indeed does he know whether copies are available for sale or loan. Too often also the symbol *x* indicates that the contributing library failed to state whether its film was a negative or a positive. One can, of course, write the owning institution for details, but it is hoped that the editors of the forthcoming supplement to this union list will require more specific information about each item, as they doubtless would have done for this first volume if funds had been available.

With regard to the quality of the films, Mr. Danton says that his committee was unwilling to set itself up as a standardizing agency. That may have been wise or not; there is always the United States Bureau of Standards, to which one may look for tests on which to base classifications. One would like to see Mr. Danton made chairman of the A.L.A.'s Committee on the Photographic Reproduction of Library Materials for a year, because it might be anticipated that in that capacity he would stimulate the Committee to establish criteria for a union list of microfilms and to sponsor sequels to the present volume and its imminent supplement, whether at Philadelphia or elsewhere.

JOE HARE

Mary Reed Library
University of Denver

BOOK NOTES

Background readings on Latin America: a reading list for high school students. Compiled by SARAH M. GALVAN. ("Reading for background," No. 14.) New York: H. W. Wilson Co., 1942. Pp. 61. \$0.35.

The "good neighbor" interest in Latin America prompted the publication of this pamphlet, the fourteenth in a series of annotated reading lists for high-school students. The books listed cover Latin-American history, the lands and peoples today, the arts, and inter-American relations. Emphasis is on readability and accuracy. Although intended for high-school students, the list is somewhat mature as a whole, since little has been written in this field expressly for young people. The simpler titles are indicated and the suitability of others is brought out in the annotations.

What to read on psychology. By MARION E. HAWES. Chicago: American Library Association, 1942. Pp. 36. \$0.40.

This reading guide is "the joint product of the suggestions of many librarians and psychologists, given final form and adapted to readers' needs" by Mrs. Hawes, with the help of John Chancellor, adult education specialist, American Library Association, who originated the idea of preparing it. Some one hundred and fifty books dealing with various aspects of psychology are listed. The guide is intended to be of use both to readers with little or no knowledge of the subject and to those who already have some familiarity with it. It is divided into three sections—"Everyday living and psychology," "The underlying principles," and "Other applications of psychology," the last including business and industrial, social, child, educational, and abnormal psychology, psychological and vocational guidance, and psychological measurements. Each section contains an annotated list of books, graded according to difficulty, and a "Minimum reading list" containing a selection of the books in the section, subdivided into lists for beginners and for more advanced readers. The excellent arrangement of the pamphlet and the helpful annotations should make the guide one of real value to readers and to librarians consulted about the choice of reading in this field.

The library science glossary: defining and explaining nearly a thousand technical words, phrases, and abbreviations used in the profession of librarianship. By LAURENCE ELLIOTT TOMLINSON. Waco, Tex.: Laurence E. Tomlinson, 1942. Pp. 132. \$1.40.

The *Library science glossary* shows deficiencies on several counts. It omits terms which a librarian may expect to find in a glossary concerned with librarianship (e.g., circulating library, public library, county library, regional library, rental collection, library trustee, library board, larger unit). It includes terms which seem unnecessary in a library-science glossary (e.g., bi-monthly, dissertation, thesis, Americana). It contains numerous definitions which are incorrect, incomplete, or unclearly phrased (e.g., "bulletin" is defined as "a list of recent accessions often printed or mimeographed by a library and usually issued monthly or quarterly"; "library science" as "a professional study, the completion of which should qualify one for entrance into the profession of librarianship"; and "librarianship" as "the profession of being a librarian." "Library economy," a term which has been used synonymously with "library science," represents in Tomlinson's glossary "the economic phase of library administration.")

This book obviously does not fill the need for a reliable, comprehensive, up-to-date glossary of terms in the field of librarianship. The accurate and succinct definitions in

Axel Moth's *Glossary of library terms* (Boston: Boston Book Co., 1915) remain useful for older concepts, and *The librarian's glossary* by L. Montague Harrod (London: Grafton & Co., 1938) will serve those who are mainly interested in the British scene.

As artes do libro nos Estados Unidos, 1931-1941. New York: American Institute of Graphic Arts, 1942. Pp. xii+81.

This catalog of the Latin American Book Exhibit, which opened at the Pan American Union in Washington, D.C., March 17, is circulated as a keepsake for members of the American Institute of Graphic Arts. The two hundred books in the exhibit were selected as the most representative of United States book design, illustration, and workmanship during the last ten years. The title-page of each is reproduced in the catalog, accompanied by a brief description of the book. The unusually attractive format of the catalog adds to its value as a permanent record of the bookmaker's art during the past decade.

Suggested studies in adult education. New York: Institute of Adult Education, 1942. Pp. 26.

In this first of a projected series of bulletins, a program of proposed research and study in adult education is outlined by the recently established Institute of Adult Education of Teachers College, Columbia University. Among the major areas in which specific studies are proposed are: adult education as it relates to the war effort; production of printed materials for adults; administration of adult education; background and history of various forms of adult education; special areas of activity such as library service, consumer education, and family education; and interests, attitudes, and needs of adult students.

A dictionary of military terms: English-Japanese-Japanese-English. By H. T. CRESWELL, J. HIRAOKA, and R. NAMBA. American ed. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1942. Pp. iv+700 (1226 columns+175 columns in Appendixes). \$7.00 (planographed).

In the Prefatory Notice the publisher states that this edition of the *Dictionary of military terms* has been prepared and published upon request. "Since the work is urgently required, it was decided to produce the original edition, published in Tokyo in 1937, by the planographic process."

Catalog of reprints in series: supplement, June, 1942. Compiled by ROBERT M. ORTON. New York: H. W. Wilson Co., 1942. Pp. 98.

The 1941 edition of the biennial *Catalog of reprints in series* is brought up to date in this supplement, which records new titles, out-of-print titles, and price changes. More than two-thirds of the sixty-three series catalogued in the main volume show changes. Three hundred and thirty-three titles have been added, and eight hundred and eighty-five are out of print. In addition, "juveniles" available in popular reprint series (nearly one thousand titles published under twenty-nine different imprints) are included for the first time.

Birth certificates: a digest of the laws and regulations of the various states. By EARL H. DAVIS. New York: H. W. Wilson Co., 1942. Pp. 136. \$1.50.

The requirement of a birth certificate for entrance into defense training and defense industries, civil service jobs, and many types of work in private industry has created a vast demand for information as to where and how to secure one's birth certificate. This manual was compiled to assist those seeking such information. It details the correct procedure—whom to address, what documents to submit, what fees are required, etc.—for each of the forty-eight states and the District of Columbia in order to secure one's birth certificate or, where that is not available, a "delayed" birth certificate.

BOOKS RECEIVED

The following publications have been received at the office of the *Library quarterly*:

- Administering the school library.* By JOHN COULBOURN. ("Guide to action series," No. 3.) Minneapolis: Educational Publishers, Inc., 1942. Pp. x+125. \$1.60.
- The ages of the world.* By FRIEDRICH SCHELLING; trans. with intro. and notes by FREDERICK DE WOLFE BOLMAN, JR. ("Columbia studies in philosophy," No. 3.) New York: Columbia University Press, 1942. Pp. xi+251. \$3.00.
- A.L.A. rules for filing catalog cards.* Prepared by a special committee under SOPHIE K. HISS. Chicago: American Library Association, 1942. Pp. viii+109. \$2.00.
- L'ami Bob: d'après Quinel et de Montgon.* Edited by ARTHUR GIBBON BOVÉE and AUREA GUINNARD. New York: Macmillan Co., 1942. Pp. xvi+202. \$1.28.
- Applying good English.* By HENRY SEIDEL CANBY, JOHN BAKER OPDYCKE, and MARGARET GILLUM. ("A modern English course," Book I.) New York: Macmillan Co., 1942. Pp. xvi+430. \$1.48.
- An appraisal of the Protocols of Zion.* By JOHN S. CURTISS. New York: Columbia University Press, 1942. Pp. [ix]+118. \$1.00.
- The Atlantic Charter and Africa from an American standpoint.* By the COMMITTEE ON AFRICA, THE WAR, AND PEACE AIMS. New York, 1942. Pp. ix+164. \$0.75; with supplement (*Events in African history*), \$1.00.
- Attacking on social work's three fronts.* By SHELBY M. HARRISON. New York: Russell Sage Foundation, 1942. Pp. 30. \$0.15.
- Bibliographies in American history: guide to materials for research.* By HENRY PUTNEY BEERS. New York: H. W. Wilson Co., 1942. Pp. xv+487.
- A bibliography of British history (1700-1715): with special reference to the reign of Queen Anne.* By WILLIAM THOMAS MORGAN. Vols. IV and V. Bloomington, Ind.: Indiana University, 1942. Pp. xi+381; xiv+487. \$6.00 for Vol. IV; \$7.00 for Vol. V.
- Bibliography on educational broadcasting.* By ISABELLA M. COOPER. Chicago: University of Chicago Press, 1942. Pp. ix+576. \$5.00 (planographed).
- "Bibliography of the official publications of Louisiana, 1803-1934." Compiled by LUCY B. FOOTE. ("American imprints inventory," No. 19.) Baton Rouge: Louisiana State University, 1942. Pp. xiv+579 (mimeographed).
- Catálogo de publicaciones periódicas científicas y técnicas: recibidas en las*

- bibliotecas de las instituciones adheridas al comite.* By the COMITE ARGENTINO DE BIBLIOTECARIOS DE INSTITUCIONES CIENTIFICAS Y TECNICAS. Buenos Aires: Comision Nacional de Cultura, 1942. Pp. xx+342.
- The choice of editions.* By PEARL G. CARLSON. Chicago: American Library Association, 1942. Pp. 69. \$0.75.
- Coleridge and the Broad Church movement.* By CHARLES RICHARD SANDERS. Durham, N.C.: Duke University Press, 1942. Pp. viii+307. \$3.50.
- The conceptual structure of educational research: a symposium held in connection with the Fiftieth Anniversary celebration of the University of Chicago.* By T. R. McCONNELL, DOUGLAS E. SCATES, and FRANK N. FREEMAN. ("Supplementary educational monographs," No. 55.) Chicago: University of Chicago, 1942. Pp. vii+47. \$0.90.
- County library primer.* By MILDRED W. SANDOE. New York: H. W. Wilson Co., 1942. Pp. 221. \$2.25.
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HELEN E. HAINES

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